

ESSENTIAL LANGUAGE HABITS

BOOK
THREE



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ESSENTIAL LANGUAGE HABITS

A New Edition in Color

BOOK THREE

BY

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PREFACE

IN this new edition of ESSENTIAL LANGUAGE HABITS, as well as in the original one, the authors have had three objectives in mind. In the first place, they carefully ascertained, through a nation-wide study and investigation, exactly what the minimum essentials of language and grammar are. These minimum essentials constitute the backbone of the series. In consequence, ESSENTIAL LANGUAGE HABITS deals only with common, practical needs and with the techniques which control language difficulties.

Secondly, the authors have developed and employed techniques for the formation of correct speech habits. They believe that the study of language and grammar is futile unless thereby children grow into the habitual use of correct language. In order to improve speech it is necessary to give practice in using correct forms until their use becomes automatic. This means that the practice material through which the correct forms are taught must be interesting, and further, that exercises, drills, games, and tests for the accomplishment of this purpose must be the core of instruction. All known and proved methods for forming correct language habits have been used in connection with interesting and valuable selections from literature, illustrations, games, drills, and original compositions.

The third objective is concerned with teaching language effectively. As this objective can be reached only through the application of language to activities, ESSENTIAL LANGUAGE HABITS provides for its attainment by a thoroughgoing utilization of conversation, letters, club work, debates, and other language activities. Furthermore, in the last analysis, language teaching is controlled more completely outside the language period than within it. In the writing of themes, the preparation of reports, and in all class work, language is a means of carrying out school activities. The

material in **ESSENTIAL LANGUAGE HABITS** is therefore so arranged that it can be used in connection with the language phases of other subjects.

The problem of individual differences of children in language ability has been provided for through the use of tests given at the beginning and end of each year and the checking lists for daily use. The tests disclose language areas in which the student is weak. The checking lists provide facilities for these children to refer constantly to authoritative rules whenever they are engaged in writing, either in language courses or in the other subjects of the curriculum.

Experimental research studies have been made which show that a liberal use of tests greatly improves the quality of instruction in language and grammar and thus insures greater achievement. Consequently, the authors have secured the assistance of Ernest C. Witham, Associate Professor of Education, Rutgers University, an expert in the field of tests and measurements. The tests included have been made to fit the text and at the same time conform to the approved practice of the objective, or new-type, tests. They represent a variety of types, and it is suggested that, with these as models, the teacher make up similar tests, in this way accumulating a valuable supply of objective tests, easy to administer and score.

In short, the authors of the series have attempted to determine the content of language and grammar, to provide methods for making correct form habitual, and to arrange the material in the text so that it may be used in connection with the language work of the pupils outside the language recitation. In addition they have provided objective measures of improvement in language skill.

Special acknowledgment is here made of a great amount of assistance rendered by many teachers, critics, and assistants, whose number is too large for individual mention.

— THE AUTHORS

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PART ONE

The Study of Grammar

The study of grammar is one means of gaining the power to speak and write correctly. Grammar shows you how the words in a sentence are related to each other in thought, why certain expressions are wrong and others are right; it furnishes you with the knowledge necessary to criticize your own language, and thereby enables you to improve your own spoken and written English.

To some people the study of grammar means only the memorizing of many rules. But grammar really teaches clear thinking, and when you see that its rules are derived from a study of the language itself, you will find them an invaluable aid in fixing certain habits in the use of correct English. Now that you have reached the seventh grade and are beginning the study of grammar you will soon have occasion to learn for yourself that a knowledge of grammar is of practical and inestimable value to you.

Before beginning the work in grammar you will need to review the language points that have been studied to see how well you remember and can use them.

1. Test A. Parts of Speech

To the teacher: The purpose of this test at this time is to find out how much the pupils know about the parts of speech before they have had definite instruction regarding any except nouns and pronouns.

Directions. Read the following paragraph very carefully. On a sheet of paper copy the words listed below the paragraph. Opposite each state whether the word, as used in this paragraph, is a noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, verb, preposition, or conjunction.

Long before reaching the harbor of Bergen you are in the midst of beautiful scenery. You pass many tree-covered islands and several high cliffs. The ship carefully follows the safe channel between the islands for some miles, for Bergen is twenty-five miles from the open sea.

harbor.....	scenery.....	between.....
Bergen.....	pass.....	follows.....
you.....	many.....	channel.....
in.....	islands.....	and.....
beautiful.....	carefully.....	open.....

2. Test B. Choice of Words

Directions. Copy each sentence, filling the blank with one of the words immediately below the sentence. Choose the *one* word that is correct for that sentence.

- I cannot spell because I am careless.
good, well, fine, great
- The man was to his favorite dog.
nodding, calling, yelling, beckoning
- We were the first to land on the island, and we
it very carefully.
hunted, searched, wandered, explored
- The bird in a straight line with the speed of
an arrow.
hurried, flitted, darted, rushed
- We the poem after our teacher.
repeated, copied, answered, told

6. He threw the ball the garden.
· in, into, to, at
7. I potatoes in my garden this summer.
raised, have risen, rose
8. What is the day of the week?
fourth, forth
9. were hundreds of people at the game.
Their, There

3. Test C. Sentence Recognition

Directions. Copy the following groups of words. Write the word "Yes" after every group of words that is a sentence. Write "No" after every group of words that is not a sentence.

1. Price five dollars.
2. The boys were watching the game.
3. I shall come to see you.
4. School ahead.
5. The Pilgrims landed at Plymouth.
6. How to draw a picture.
7. Merrily the bells on Christmas morning.
8. An open fire is cheerful.
9. The boys had a fine time in camp.
10. The flag should be at sunrise.

4. Test D. Use of Dictionary

To the teacher: Speed is very important in this test. Be sure that all pupils start at the same time. Each pupil should hand in his paper as soon as the test is completed. Record on each paper the number of minutes spent on the test. Make up similar tests and use them until the class attains facility in finding words in the dictionary.

Directions. This test shows how quickly you can look up words in the dictionary. First copy the words on a sheet of paper. Look up each word in the dictionary and opposite it write the number of the page on which you found it. As soon as you have written the page number for the last word, hand in your paper.

bounce	total	occur	under
endive	shave	humming	forecast
meter	wash	peanut	stake

5. Test E. Punctuation

Directions. Copy the following sentences, placing periods, commas, exclamation marks, question marks, apostrophes, or quotation marks where they are needed:

1. What made you go home
2. I met two members of President Hoovers cabinet
3. If you will read Treasure Island I am sure you will like it
4. Are you going home Harold asked the teacher
5. My you are a big boy
6. We traveled through England France and Spain
7. A wooden bridge near the town was carried away
8. Congress appointed a commissioner who attended the conference
9. Think of something you did yesterday and tell what it was
10. Richard did you lose your umbrella

6. Test F. Capitalization*

Directions. Each sentence is followed by a statement which may be true or false. Copy each statement (not the

*The teacher can increase the value of this test by doubling the length of it. Number right - Number wrong = Score.

sentence above it). Write "True" after every true statement and "False" after every statement that is not true.

	<i>True</i>	<i>False</i>
1. Longfellow wrote "Paul Revere's Ride." The sentence is correct.		
2. I have just read "Back Trailers from the Middle Border." There should be one more capital letter		
3. The Knights of the Round Table were very Brave. There is one capital letter too many.		
4. George Washington was a statesman and Soldier. The sentence is correct.		
5. Wednesday and Saturday are Market days. This sentence is correct.		
6. New York is larger than Chicago. The sentence is correct.		
7. June, july, and august are the summer months. There should be two more capitals.		
8. Captain Eri was an Old Fisherman. There should be only two capitals.		
9. Ichabod Crane was a Schoolmaster. The sentence is correct.		
10. Mark Twain's real name was Samuel L. Clemens. There should be five capitals.		

7. The Sentence

There are many different ways of expressing thoughts and feelings. A dog wags his tail, barks, and whines, but we cannot always tell just what he means. Boys and girls wave their arms, laugh, and cry. They have, however, another way of expressing their thoughts and feelings. They can use words.

When children know only a few words, their language is difficult to interpret. If a little child says "Mamma!" he may mean, "I am sleepy," or "Let's go outdoors, mamma," or perhaps, "I see a lady like my mamma."

Even after we have learned to express our thoughts more definitely, we sometimes use single words or groups of words which do not in themselves express complete thoughts. For instance, two people might carry on a conversation such as this:

"Last night Mrs. Jones' house was broken into."

"At what time?"

"About three o'clock."

"Have they caught the man?"

"Not yet."

Some of these groups of words express complete thoughts. But some of them do not; as,

"At what time?"

"About three o'clock."

"Not yet."

If the thought implied by "Not yet" were completely expressed it would be: "The man has not yet been caught." How would the other incomplete expressions read if the complete meaning were stated?

When we wish to express our thoughts fully, and in such a way that others will know precisely what we mean, we use sentences.

A sentence is a group of words which expresses a complete thought.

Begin every sentence with a capital letter.

Exercise. Some of the following groups of words are sentences and some are not. Which are sentences? Why? Make a sentence of each group not now a sentence.

1. My kitten likes to play
2. In the orchard
3. At the store
4. How much did you pay for your book
5. Did you find
6. On my way home from school
7. John has a new cap
8. What kind

8. Declarative and Interrogative Sentences

Although all sentences express complete thoughts, there are different kinds of sentences. Some make statements or give commands; others ask questions. The sentence "I have a bag full of books" asserts or states a fact, and the sentence "Put the books into my bag" gives a command; while the sentence "Have you a bag full of books?" asks a question.

Notice the following sentences :

1. I can run one hundred yards in fifteen seconds.
2. We are studying grammar this year.
3. Our school is going to have a picnic.
4. Go home as quickly as you can.
5. Don't let me forget my books.

The first three sentences make statements or assertions, while the last two express commands or requests. Such sentences are called **declarative sentences**.

A declarative sentence is a sentence that makes a statement or gives a command.

Now look at these sentences. How do they differ from the sentences above?

1. May I go?
2. Where is the baseball?
3. Who is that crying?

These sentences ask questions and are called **interrogative sentences**.

Spell and pronounce rapidly *declarative* and *interrogative*. Notice the two *r*'s in *interrogative*.

An interrogative sentence is a sentence that asks a question.

In the checking list used in the lower grades these rules occurred:

A period is placed at the end of a statement.

A question mark is placed at the end of a question.

We are now able to state these rules in terms of grammar. What kind of sentence makes a statement? What kind of punctuation mark is placed after a declarative sentence? What kind of sentence asks a question? What kind of punctuation mark is placed after an interrogative sentence?

Place a period at the end of a declarative sentence.

Place a question mark at the end of an interrogative sentence.

Exercises. A. The following sentences are incomplete because the proper punctuation mark is lacking at the end.

Decide what kind of sentence each is. Then write each sentence, supplying the proper mark of punctuation. In each case write beneath the sentence the rule that governs your choice of a punctuation mark.

1. Where are you going, Jane
2. We must speak as correctly as we can all the time
3. By studying grammar we learn how to correct our mistakes
4. May I coast with you
5. When does the train leave
6. Will you run to the store for me
7. I like to read about the brown thrush
8. The friendly moon often shines into my window
9. Who is president of the United States
10. John and Harry know, I am sure
11. Tell us a story, Jane
12. How old is Mr. Greene

B. Write five declarative and five interrogative sentences.

9. Exclamatory and Non-Exclamatory Sentences

Besides being classified as declarative or interrogative, sentences may be classified as **exclamatory** or **non-exclamatory**. Read the following selection:

One day Robert was helping his mother plant some flowers. His mother used a trowel, but Robert preferred to dig with his fingers. When they had finished, his mother said to him with a smile, "Look at your hands."

A few days after that, when Robert came into the dining room for supper, his mother saw that his hands were not clean, and exclaimed sharply, "Look at your hands!"

You will notice that Robert's mother said, "Look at your hands," twice. In the first case this sentence is followed by a period. In the second case it is followed by an exclamation mark. What kind of sentence is the first? Why? The second sentence differs from the first in that it expresses strong feeling. It is therefore called an *exclamatory* sentence.

In the selection given, the declarative sentence "Look at your hands" became exclamatory when stated with strong feeling. Similarly an interrogative sentence may become exclamatory. For instance, a father may say to his son very calmly, "What are you doing?" In this sentence he is merely asking for information. But suppose that on seeing his small son tear a book he exclaims, in a surprised and provoked manner, "What are you doing!" The sentence then becomes exclamatory.

An exclamatory sentence is a sentence that expresses strong feeling.

What kind of punctuation mark follows a sentence which expresses strong feeling?

Place an exclamation mark at the end of an exclamatory sentence.

All sentences which do not express sudden or strong feeling are non-exclamatory. *Non* is a Latin word meaning "not."

A non-exclamatory sentence is any sentence that does not express strong feeling.

All sentences are either declarative or interrogative sentences, and these may be either exclamatory or non-exclamatory, according to the degree of feeling which they express. The rules for the punctuation of declarative and interrogative sentences given in the preceding lesson refer

to the punctuation of declarative and interrogative sentences when they are non-exclamatory.

Exercise. Is the first sentence below exclamatory or non-exclamatory? Why? Is the second sentence of the first pair exclamatory or non-exclamatory? Why? Imagine circumstances or incidents which will illustrate the use of each of the sentences in the remaining pairs.

1. The horse is running away.
The horse is running away!
2. Come back.
Come back!
3. Don't shoot.
Don't shoot!
4. What are you doing?
What are you doing!
5. Please be quiet.
Please be quiet!

10. Review—Sentences

How are sentences classified according to use? Define each kind of sentence and tell how it is punctuated.

Exercises. A. Tell whether each of the following sentences is declarative or interrogative. Which are exclamatory? How do you know?

1. How the lightning flashes!
2. Please give me that tennis ball.
3. Do not let the glass fall.
4. Will you sharpen my pencil?
5. Hark, I hear singing!
6. Rome ruled the world.
7. Have you read the story of Hans Brinker?
8. The Pickwick Club took the coach at Rochester.

9. How much do you read?
10. Skating is wholesome fun.
11. The clouds look black.
12. Why are you indignant with me?

B. Write a declarative, an interrogative, and an exclamatory sentence for each one of the following words:

butterfly peanuts dog river sister

C. In class, one pupil goes to the front of the room, pretending he is an old man walking with a cane. He walks to a chair and sinks into it. His arms fall to his sides and his cane drops to the floor.

Make a declarative sentence, an interrogative sentence, and an exclamatory sentence about the action; as,

1. The old man is tired.
2. No, he is ill!
3. Who will go for the doctor?

11. Subject and Predicate

Every complete thought has two parts: (1) what we are thinking about, and (2) what we think about it. Since a sentence is the expression of a complete thought, it has two parts. One part tells what is spoken of; the other part tells what is said about it.

Some complete thoughts may be expressed in only two words; as,

Dogs run.
Snow falls.
Boys play.

What is spoken of in the first of these sentences? in the second? in the third? The part of the sentence which tells

what we are speaking of is called the **subject**. Name the subject in each of the sentences above. Spell and pronounce the word *subject*.

Which word in the first sentence tells what is said about the subject? in the second sentence? in the third? That part of the sentence which tells what is said about the subject is called the **predicate**. Spell and pronounce the word *predicate*. Name the predicate in each of the sentences above.

The subject of a sentence is that part of it which tells what is spoken of.

The predicate of a sentence is that part of it which tells what is said about the subject.

Write a sentence about *cats*; about *trees*; about *girls*. What is the predicate in each sentence? Why? Write a sentence using the word *blows*. Write one using the word *talk* and one using the word *gallop*. What is the subject of each sentence? Why?

Sometimes sentences are much longer than the two-word sentences at the beginning of this lesson, but they may still be divided into subject and predicate; as,

Old dogs run slowly.

The moist snow falls on the sidewalk.

The older boys play baseball at recess.

What is the subject of a sentence? What is the subject of the first of these sentences? What is the predicate of a sentence? What is the predicate of the first sentence? Point out the subject and the predicate of each of the other two sentences.

We may make different assertions about the same subject; as,

The first American flag had thirteen stripes.
 The first American flag had thirteen stars.
 The first American flag was made by Betsy Ross.

What is the subject of each sentence? Why is it called the subject? What is the predicate of each sentence? Why is it called the predicate?

We may also say the same thing about different subjects.

Mother turned on the light in the hall.
 Father turned on the light in the hall.
 The stranger turned on the light in the hall.

What is the predicate of each sentence? Why is it called the predicate? What is the subject of each sentence? Why is it called the subject?

Exercises. *A.* Supply three different subjects for each of the following predicates. Use more than two words in each subject.

1. — ran under the house.
2. — flew over the tree tops.
3. — walked across the road.
4. — jumped into the automobile.
5. — came rushing down the street.
6. — killed a lion.
7. — caught a chicken.
8. — sank to the bottom of the pond.
9. — howled all night long.
10. — crouched behind a log.

B. Supply three predicates for each of the following, used as subjects:

Lincoln
 American soldiers

Polar bears
 John

George Washington	My grandfather
An honest boy	A kind girl
A strong man	My mother

12. Arrangement of Subject and Predicate

In the sentence "A pocketbook lay on the sidewalk," the subject precedes the predicate. This is the natural and most common order of subject and predicate in a sentence which makes a statement. But on the other hand, it is just as correct to say, "On the sidewalk lay a pocketbook." In this case the predicate precedes the subject, and the sentence is said to be in an *inverted* or a *transposed order*. The transposed order is used for variety and emphasis. It is especially common in poetry.

In questions, such as "What is your name?" the predicate nearly always precedes the subject. Here, *your name* is the subject, and *is what* is the predicate.

What is the subject in each of these sentences?

Are you going home?

Did he see that play?

On each side of the river was a green meadow.

In dividing a sentence into subject and predicate, first notice whether the order is natural or transposed. If the predicate precedes the subject, rewrite or think of the sentence in the natural order; that is, subject first, then predicate; as,

You/are going home.

He/did see that play.

A green meadow/was on each side of the river.

In sentences giving commands or requests the subject is sometimes not expressed; as, "Stop teasing him." In

such sentences the subject is the word *you* understood, as the statement "Stop teasing him" is addressed to some person unknown to any one reading the sentence.

Exercise. Write the following sentences. Draw a line between the subject and the predicate. If necessary, rearrange the sentence before writing it. Apply the model form given for sentence 1 to each of the other sentences.

First sentence: "*I* is the subject because it tells what is spoken of; *like to watch the squirrels* is the predicate because it tells what is said about the subject."

1. I like to watch the squirrels.
2. Have you seen the grey squirrels in our park?
3. They have long bushy tails and bright eyes.
4. Mother makes delicious chocolate cake.
5. Down fell the cake on the floor.
6. What did mother say about that?
7. I saw a game of basket-ball.
8. Was Jim hurt in the game?
9. Mother and I saw the circus parade.
10. Come back soon.
11. Alice saw the rabbit run into the hole.
12. Where are the walrus and the polar bear?
13. Down on the beach they sat.
14. Where were the rabbit's white gloves?
15. Of course it is all nonsense.

13. Parts of Speech—Nouns

We have learned that the subject of a sentence tells what is spoken of, while the predicate tells what is said about the subject. In a similar way, each word in the sentence has a certain part to play in expressing the thought of the sentence as a whole. According to their uses in sentences,

words have been classified by scholars into eight groups called **parts of speech**. As we know, there are a great many words in the English language. One well-known dictionary puts the number at about four hundred thousand. Yet every word in our language falls into one of these eight groups, and is classified as a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, or interjection. When we know the use to which a word is put in helping to express the thought of a sentence, we know what part of speech it is.

Nouns. In the following paragraph the italicized words are names of persons, places, and things. All such words are called *nouns*.

Francis Scott Key was a *prisoner* on one of the British *vessels* that bombarded the *city* of *Baltimore*. The *ships* did their worst firing at *night*. When the *bomb-shells* and the *rockets* burst, they showed *Key* clearly that the little American *fort* was still standing. After many long *hours* the *bombardment* ceased; but in the *dark* he could not see whether the *stars* and *stripes* were still waving over the *fort*. It was then that he wrote the *lines*:

“Oh! say, does that star-spangled *banner* yet wave
O'er the *land* of the free, and the *home* of the brave?”

A noun is a word used as the name of a person, place, or thing.

Many nouns name things which we can see, hear, or touch. But the name of anything which we imagine or experience, such as *happiness*, *sadness*, *faith*, *hope*, etc., is also a noun.

Exercise. In the sentences that follow, point out all the nouns:

1. When day came, Key saw the fort.
2. The American flag was flying over it.

3. There was great joy in his heart.
4. He then wrote the rest of his song.
5. The American soldiers sang the song.
6. The kitten was chasing a butterfly.
7. Agamemnon, the general-in-chief of the Greeks, was not so clever as his brother.
8. School began on Monday.
9. My desk is near a window.
10. My head is as heavy as so much lead.
11. Too much candy is bad for people.
12. There is a buzzing noise in the schoolroom.
13. My thoughts are with my presents at home.
14. The teacher smiled as she came near my seat.
15. My hair stood up from fright when I heard that strange noise.
16. William was called upon to explain a problem.
17. When the bell rang, away the boys flew for their skates.
18. Harry was very much surprised to find the ghost-like man ahead to be a guide post.
19. The postman brought a parcel containing books and candy to my mother.
20. Esther and Agnes went into the living room next to the library.
21. The ladies of the club were in the room.
22. Their work was heaped upon the table and scraps of cloth and threads littered the floor.

14. Pronouns

Read the following sentences and tell why they are awkward and clumsy.

1. The conductor asked the little girl where the little girl was going.
2. The little girl told the conductor that the little girl wanted to ride as far as Lexington Avenue.
3. The conductor

said that the conductor would tell the little girl when the little girl should get off.

In sentences 2 and 3 use other words for *the conductor* and the *little girl*. What words shall you use? Words like *I, he, she, it, we, and they* are called **pronouns**. *Pro* means *for*; pronouns are words used *for nouns*.

Some of the most common pronouns are:

I	we	you	he	she	it	they	who
mine	ours	yours	his	hers		theirs	whom
me	us		him	her		them	

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

Exercises. *A.* Find the pronouns, and point out the nouns for which the pronouns stand in the following sentences:

1. Albert and Jack ran to the cave where they had hidden an ax.
2. Albert said that he would build a fire.
3. Jack was ready to help him build it.
4. Mary, Ellen, and I hastened to help them.
5. Ellen told Helen she would give her an apple at recess.
6. Helen said, "You promised to give me an apple."

B. Point out the pronouns in the following sentences:

1. I frightened them so badly that they would not forgive me.
2. He played very skillfully.
3. His is a larger piece of pie than mine.
4. She was reading when we saw her last.
5. Who was here when we came home?
6. I wish you would send him the book when you find it.
7. We told them several times which was theirs and which was ours.

8. Yours are brand new boots, aren't they?
9. I intend to give them to her.
10. Let me tell you whom to ask to help us find it.

15. Verbs

Francis Scott Key *was* a prisoner on one of the British vessels that *bombarded* the city of Baltimore. The ships *did* their worst firing at night. When the bomb-shells and the rockets *burst*, they *showed* Key clearly that the American fort *was* still *standing*. After many long hours the firing *ceased*; but in the dark he *could* not *see* whether the stars and stripes *were* still *waving* over the fort. It *was* then that he *wrote* the lines:

“Oh! *say, does* that star-spangled banner yet *wave*
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave?”

Read this paragraph, omitting the words in italics. Does the paragraph mean anything without these words? Notice that the word *bombarded* tells what happened—that is, it asserts *action*. The word *was*, on the other hand, does not assert action, but is said to assert *being*. Words like those in italics, that assert action or being, are called **verbs**. Every sentence must have at least one verb.

A verb is a word that asserts action or being.

Exercise. What are the verbs in the following sentences?

1. The fireman rang the bell.
2. Then he hastened to the burning building.
3. The fire destroyed the house.
4. Smoke rose high above the neighboring houses.
5. The homeless children wept.
6. When the old hen clucked, the little chicks ran to her.
7. The old hawk perched himself upon the tree while he waited for the chickens to leave the barn.
8. We watched the little red squirrel gather nuts.

9. When Mary took the fish from the hook, it flopped back into the water.
10. We wandered along the stream, for many flowers grew on the bank.
11. My partner fell into the water as he crossed the plank.
12. Rover sat down by a tree while Susan ate her lunch.
13. "Dear me!" cried Susan, as Rover seized a large black snake.
14. When he turned the light out, little John knocked a book off the table.
15. When Robert fell down the stairs, he sprained his ankle.
16. A honeysuckle vine covered the fence which surrounded the yard.
17. As the old clock struck four, the uncanny cry of the hoot owl came through my window.
18. Little Evelyn wrote a letter to her aunt who lives in California.
19. Call me when Mary comes.
20. As Claude made a good grade in language, his father gave him a knife.

16. Adjectives

1. *The* house stands on *a* hill.
2. *The little red* house stands on *a wooded* hill.

In what way is sentence 2 different from sentence 1? The italicized words in sentence 2 tell us what kind of house stands on what kind of hill. These words that add to the meaning of the nouns *house* and *hill* are called **adjectives**.

A word which adds to the meaning of another word by explaining or describing it is said to *modify* the other word. The adjectives *The*, *little*, and *red* modify the noun *house*. What word do *a* and *wooded* modify? What part of speech

is *hill*? You will learn later on that adjectives also modify pronouns.

An adjective is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun.

Exercise. Find the adjectives in the following sentences and tell what noun each modifies. Adjectives usually precede the nouns they modify. Sometimes, however, the adjective follows the noun it modifies.

Give these sentences without the adjectives, and explain how the meaning is changed thereby.

1. The terrified man ran away from the haunted house.
2. Harry made a pretty, polished shelf, and upon it he kept many beautiful plants.
3. They gave many queer answers.
4. Charles loved his lame puppy.
5. The Ruggleses had a fine Christmas dinner and a beautiful Christmas tree.
6. Her golden hair fell in fluffy curls over her white forehead and graceful neck.
7. There was a great bustle behind the huge oaken door.
8. Carol was a generous little creature.
9. Do you mean that large and interesting family of poor children who live in the small red house?
10. Butterflies, yellow and white, fluttered around moist places in the ditch, and slender, striped water-snakes glided across the stagnant pools.

17. Adverbs

Besides adjectives, there is another part of speech which is used as a modifier. Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns, but this part of speech modifies three different parts of speech.

1. The children play.
2. The children play *joyously*.
3. The children play *now*.
4. The children play *here*.

The italicized words change or modify the meaning of the verb *play*. *Joyously* tells *how* the children play; *now* tells *when*; *here* tells *where*. Words like *joyously*, *now*, and *here* are called **adverbs**.

Adverbs may also modify adjectives or other adverbs; for instance:

1. She is a *most* charming young woman.
2. Louise sings *very* well.

In sentence 1 the adverb *most* modifies the adjective *charming*. In sentence 2 *well* tells how Louise sings. That is, it modifies the verb *sings*, and is therefore an adverb. *Very* modifies the adverb *well*, and is therefore an adverb.

An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Exercise. Which words in the following sentences are adverbs? Tell what verb, adjective, or adverb each adverb modifies.

1. He walked very quietly into the office.
2. John works quickly and well.
3. The picture was exceedingly beautiful.
4. He did not see the quaintly carved statue.
5. The snow fell noiselessly.
6. Joseph is scrubbing the porch carefully.
7. He scrubs well.
8. He catches the ball quickly and speedily passes it to his team-mate.
9. Here and there Alice saw maps and pictures hung on pegs.

10. Alice peeped eagerly into the hole.
11. She jumped very nimbly.
12. She worked too hard.
13. Alice ate the currants somewhat cautiously.
14. She could see the little golden key quite plainly.
15. She very soon finished the cake.
16. There's hardly enough time left to make the fudge.
17. The horses stamped uneasily.
18. He walked down to the river and whistled softly.
19. She spoke so sharply that he looked at her quickly.
20. The snow fell steadily and silently during the night.

18. Prepositions

Read the following sentences, noticing the italicized words:

1. The cat jumped *over* the chair.
2. The cat jumped *under* the chair.
3. The cat jumped *behind* the chair.
4. The cat jumped *into* the chair.

How does the second of these sentences differ in meaning from the first? What word makes this difference in meaning? Explain how the italicized word in each of the other sentences affects the meaning of the sentence.

You see that the italicized word in each of these sentences expresses a certain relation between the noun *chair* and the verb *jumped*. The words *over*, *under*, *behind*, and *into* are called *prepositions*.

In the sentences just given each preposition shows the relation between a noun and a verb. Let us see how the prepositions in the following sentences are used:

1. They worked *with* us yesterday.
2. They worked *for* us yesterday.

3. The book *on* the table is mine.
4. The book *under* the table is mine.

What part of speech is *us? worked?* In sentences 1 and 2 the preposition shows the relation between a pronoun and a verb. What part of speech is *table? book?* In sentences 3 and 4 the preposition shows the relation between a noun and a noun. What are the prepositions in these sentences?

The word *preposition* means "placed before." A preposition is usually placed before a noun or pronoun.

The following list includes the most common prepositions:

about	around	by	into	through
across	at	during	near	to
after	before	for	of	toward
against	beside	from	on	under
among	between	in	over	with

A preposition is a word that shows the relation between a noun or a pronoun and some other word or words in the sentence.

Exercises. A. Point out the prepositions in the following sentences, and the parts of speech between which each preposition shows a relation.

1. I will agree with you for the sake of peace.
2. John lives in a house on a hill.
3. The boy ran down the road and between the two houses beside the mill.
4. The river flows through a valley.
5. From shore to shore not a sail could be seen.
6. Annette walked across the street and toward the library.
7. The squirrel ran up the tree and darted along the top-most branch.
8. Henry fell down the garage steps.

9. On Christmas Eve we told stories around the tree at Aunt May's house.
10. The archaeologist searched among the ruins for relics of the past.

B. Write ten sentences, using ten or more of the prepositions given in the list, and tell the part of speech of the words between which each preposition shows a relation.

19. Conjunctions

1. Spring is here now, *and* we shall soon have warm weather.
2. It is now eight o'clock, *and* we are ready to start to school.
3. Mary cooked the dinner, *and* Josephine washed the dishes.

You see that the first of these sentences consists of two statements, each complete in itself. The first statement is *Spring is here now*. The second is *we shall soon have warm weather*. These two statements are joined by the word *and*. Separate sentence 2 into two statements. Do the same with sentence 3. What word connects the statements in each case?

Other words besides *and* may be used to connect statements. Point out the connecting word in each of the following sentences, and tell what statements it connects.

1. I have a book, *but* Alma has none.
2. We may go skating tomorrow, *or* we may wait until the day after tomorrow.
3. They walked slowly, *for* they were tired.

Connecting words such as *and*, *but*, *or*, and *for* are called **conjunctions**. The word *conjunction* is derived from the

Latin verb *coniungere*. The prefix *con* means "together," and *iungere* means "to join." *Coniungere* therefore means "to join together." A conjunction is a word which "joins together." What does the English word *junction* mean? Can you see any connection in meaning between this word and the Latin word *iungere*? Mention some other English words in which the prefix *con* is used.

In the sentences we have just given, conjunctions were used to connect statements. Frequently, however, conjunctions are used to connect single words, or groups of words, as in these sentences:

1. I have books *and* pencils in my desk. (Two nouns connected).
2. Helen *and* I walked two miles this morning. (A noun and a pronoun connected).
3. Give the candy to Eva *or* to Catherine. (Two groups of words, *to Eva* and *to Catherine*, connected).

A conjunction is a word that is used to connect words or groups of words.

Here is a list of common conjunctions:

although	because	if	since
and	but	nor	that
as	for	or	unless

Exercise. Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences and show what parts of speech, groups of words, or statements they connect:

1. I study grammar and history.
2. Margaret and Helen are good friends.
3. Give the books to him and to me.
4. He ran down the steps and into the yard.
5. I am not going today because it is too late.

6. I shall not learn much unless I study hard.
7. We have not seen the violinist since he gave his recital.
8. It is still raining although the sun is now shining.
9. The weather is clear but cold.
10. She would have fallen if we had not helped her.
11. Fido barked, and the lazy cat ran up into the loft.
12. Harry trembled, although the teacher did not call upon him.
13. He whistled as he walked.
14. Children enjoy roller skating because they like to be active.
15. I lost all of my money, but I did not let that spoil my fun.
16. You must take your walk today if the weather does not change.
17. The tourists could not leave the town nor could they find a lodging.
18. Why don't you play parchesi or checkers?
19. We feared that the ice was too thin.
20. I will get you an eversharp on your birthday unless you would rather have a fountain pen.

20. Interjections

1. *Hurrah!* our team has won.
2. *Alas!* what will become of the poor refugees now?

Words like *oh*, *ah*, *hurrah*, and *alas*, that express sudden feeling, are called *interjections*.

An interjection is a word that expresses strong or sudden feeling.

There is one interjection in the paragraph about Francis Scott Key in Lesson 15. What is it?

Exercises. A. Point out the interjections in the following sentences, and tell why each is an interjection:

1. Oh, I have lost my hat!
2. Pshaw! I forgot my pencil.
3. My! You are a fortunate girl.
4. Alas, poor Alice had grown small again!
5. Joy! We are not going to have our test.
6. Mercy! What has happened?
7. Ah, little Miss Marie is at home again!
8. Whew! It is cold!
9. The little girl exclaimed, "Hurrah for that chocolate Santa Claus!"
10. Oh! I am never afraid.
11. Bah! I don't believe it.
12. Crash! There goes my cut glass tumbler!

What marks of punctuation follow the interjections in the sentences above? An interjection is usually followed by an exclamation mark although when only mildly exclamatory it may be followed by a comma.

Give the reason for the mark of punctuation used at the end of each sentence.

B. Write ten sentences of your own containing interjections. Punctuate the sentences correctly, and tell whether they are exclamatory or non-exclamatory.

21. Review—Parts of Speech

Exercises. *A.* What part of speech is each word in the following sentences? How do you know?

1. The poor newsboy lives in a little house.
2. In the garden are four large cherry trees.
3. The soft white snow fell noiselessly.
4. Then the light faded slowly.
5. Rachel and Margaret played a duet.
6. The breeze gently caressed the sleepy flowers.

7. Oh, I like roses!
8. At long intervals a little breeze filled the sails.
9. The glare of the sun blinded us.
10. The moonlight shone through the narrow windows of the old castle.
11. He crossed the floor and looked through the window at the river.
12. The water flowed slowly past the lilies. It made little bubbles against them.
13. We heard the dull tread of swift horses.
14. Roy cracked some nuts for us.
15. "Ouch!" he cried.

B. Write three sentences containing nouns, adjectives, and verbs, three containing pronouns, verbs, and adverbs. In one of these sentences use a conjunction; in another, a preposition; in another, an interjection. What one part of speech must be used in every sentence? Why?

22. Rules for Oral Composition

One day as I was about to enter the office of a well-known business man, I met in the hall two young men who were just leaving. As they passed me I heard one say to the other, "I wonder why he didn't hire us?" When I went in I asked the business man to answer the question for me.

"One of them," he answered, "had three very bad faults. He leaned against my desk as if he were lazy. He would not look at me when he talked to me, and he talked so loud and fast that I could not understand him. The other one had four faults. He paused too long between his words, and used *uh's* and *and's* and *why's* so much that I grew tired trying to listen to him. His voice was so indistinct that I could hardly understand him, and he mispronounced

several words. Those boys are good enough for ordinary jobs, but I need bright boys."

Fortunately for you, you have an opportunity to correct such faults as these before you go into business. If you do not correct them now, the careless habits will grow stronger every day, and the stronger they become the more difficult it will be to correct them.

The rules to follow in all oral work in class are these:

1. **Stand erect.**

Do not lounge against the desk or any other object.

2. **When you are talking to people, look at them.**

3. **Enunciate clearly.**

Open your mouth wide enough to let out the sound of your voice.

4. **Pronounce every word correctly.**

Whenever you meet a new word, learn to pronounce it correctly. Get your friends to tell you whenever you mispronounce a word, so that you may learn its correct pronunciation.

5. **Speak loud enough to be heard.**

Some children have very loud voices. Others speak in such low tones that they cannot be heard across the school-room. You can learn to modulate your voice suitably by looking at the person to whom you are talking, saying to yourself, "I will speak just loud enough for him to hear me distinctly."

6. **Speak without halting.**

When you are preparing a story to tell in class, have clearly in mind what you wish to say. Repeat it to yourself until you can tell it without hesitating.

7. **Do not use too many *and's* and *well's*.**

This habit can be cured in the same way in which halting speech is cured.

8. Do not talk too fast.

If you talk *too* fast, you are likely not to be understood unless your pronunciation and enunciation are particularly good.

Exercise. For tomorrow, you may grade yourself on each of the eight points just discussed. One girl I know graded herself *Good* in 1, *Fair* in 2, *Good* in 3, *Poor* in 4, *Poor* in 5 (because her voice was too loud and high), *Good* in 6, *Poor* in 7, and *Poor* in 8. On what should she work particularly to improve her speech? What ought you to work on to improve yours?

If you are better than most of your classmates, grade yourself *Good*. If you are like most of them, grade yourself *Fair*. If you are worse than most of them, grade yourself *Poor*. If you are not sure about how to grade yourself, consult your teacher.

23. Short Talks

Read again in Lesson 22 the rules for oral class work. Which one is the hardest for you to follow? Prepare short talks on two of the subjects below:

1. An Occasion When It Took Courage to Be Truthful
2. The Most Courageous Act I Have Ever Seen
3. A Glimpse of a Famous Man
4. An Interesting Pageant
5. A Near Accident
6. A Rescue
7. How I Helped Put Out a Fire
8. A Camping Trip.

9. Tricks My Pet Can Do
10. A Concert I Enjoyed
11. My Favorite Magazine
12. A Good Play
13. Learning to Swim

24. Kinds of Nouns

What do we call the words in our language which are used as names of persons, places, or things?

What are the nouns in the following sentences?

1. *Ramona* is an interesting book.
2. The girl whom I know best is Lillian Jones.
3. The city in which we live is New Orleans.

Notice that some of the nouns in the sentences above are capitalized and some are not. Let us look at one that is not capitalized. The noun *book* is a noun that is common to a whole class of things. When we say *book* we may mean any one of thousands of books. In the same way, *girl* may mean any one of thousands of girls, and *city* any one of thousands of cities. *Girl* is a name common to a class of people, and *city* a name common to a class of places. Such nouns are called **common nouns**.

A common noun is a word used as the name of any one of a class of persons, places, or things.

Now look at the nouns which are capitalized in the sentences above. The noun *Ramona* is the name of a particular book. *Lillian Jones* is the name of a particular girl, and *New Orleans* is the name of a particular city. Names of particular persons, places, or things, are called proper nouns. *Boy* is a common noun, but *John* is a proper noun. Why? Is *dog* a common noun or a proper noun? *Rover*? *Ohio*?

A proper noun is a word used as the name of a particular person, place, or thing.

You will see from the examples in sentences 2 and 3 that a proper noun sometimes consists of more than one word. When this is the case, the important words of the group are usually capitalized; but the unimportant words are not capitalized. Thus we speak of the *President of the United States*; *Manchester-by-the-Sea*; or the *Museum of Fine Arts*. Which of these proper nouns is the name of a particular person? which the name of a particular place? which the name of a particular thing?

It is important to remember that all proper nouns begin with capital letters. Remember particularly that names of the days of the week are proper nouns. Write them. The names of the months are proper nouns. See whether you can write them correctly. All names applied to the Deity are written with capital letters, as: *Lord, God, Our Father*. The names of all races of people are proper nouns; as, *Greeks, Italians, and Russians*. All names of languages begin with capitals; as, *Chinese, Polish, and English*. Important words in the titles of books begin with capitals; as, *Toilers of the Sea*.

Begin with capital letters all proper nouns, including names of the days of the week, names of the months, titles of books, names of all races and languages, and names applied to the Deity.

Exercises. *A.* Make a list of all the nouns in a paragraph from your history, which your teacher will assign, telling the kind of noun each is, and why.

B. Which of the following nouns are common nouns, and which are proper nouns? Why? Write them in a column and after each write "common" or "proper."

Tuesday	New York	slate	Missouri	Faneuil Hall
flax	flies	Mary	pie	grammar
sand	sky	apple	dog	history
Mr. James	Africa	roses	June	American

C. Copy this list and write a corresponding proper noun after each class name; as, *city, Chicago; boy, John.*

country	president	language	store
state	school	race	chauffeur
man	woman	street	book

D. Write the following paragraph, correcting it for capitalization and punctuation. Be able to give the reason for each capital letter and mark of punctuation that you use.

It was saturday why were william and clifford sad the trouble was caused by the rain the boys had expected to go to bakersville and take the car to the neponset river they were to meet tom sawyer now their mothers would not let them start wasnt that enough to make anybody sad on a warm day in may

25. Number of Nouns

In the sixth grade you learned the difference between singular and plural number. What does *singular* mean? What does *plural* mean? Even if you do not remember, you can surely tell which of the nouns in the following sentences mean one person, place, or thing, and which mean more than one.

1. The *cherry* is red.
2. The *cherries* are red.
3. A beautiful *plant* will grow from this *seed*.
4. Beautiful *plants* will grow from these *seeds*.
5. The American *soldier* is brave.
6. The American *soldiers* are brave.

Notice that the nouns denoting *one* are spelled differently from the nouns denoting *more than one*. The singular number of a noun is the form that denotes only one; as, *cherry, plant, seed, soldier*. The plural number of a noun is the form that denotes more than one; as, *cherries, plants, seeds, soldiers*.

The singular number of a word denotes *one person, place, or thing*. The plural number of a word denotes *more than one person, place, or thing*.

You have also learned two ways in which plurals are formed from singulars.

What is the rule for forming the plural of these nouns?

street	streets	pencil	pencils	fire	fires
girl	girls	violet	violets	tree	trees

Most nouns form their plurals in this way. But some nouns form their plurals in other ways.

What is the rule for forming the plural of nouns like these?

fox	foxes	grass	grasses	sash	sashes
dish	dishes	brush	brushes	peach	peaches

Most nouns form their plural by adding *s* to the singular. Nouns ending in an *s* sound (*s, z, x, ch, sh*) form their plural by adding *es* to the singular.

What is the plural of *compass*? of *box*? of *church*? of *wish*?

Exercises. *A.* Copy the following sentences, placing one line under all singular nouns, and two lines under all plural nouns. Notice also whether they are common or proper nouns.

1. My father owns three ranches.
2. Mr. Ross lives in a large green house.
3. Where are my pencils, Jane?

4. The robin and the wren came to us in the springtime.
5. Jack and his friends like to play baseball.
6. The grasshoppers snapped their dull red wings.
7. The Museum of Fine Arts is on Huntington Avenue.
8. Wellesley College is near Boston.

B. Write the plural of the following nouns:

cake	bush	carpet	sweater	verb
sister	elephant	ax	shoe	pronoun
pan	branch	class	church	adjective
key	sparrow	star	comma	adverb

C. Read ten lines in a newspaper, a magazine, or in your history. List all nouns as common or proper, and as singular or plural, and bring the list to class.

26. The Formation of Irregular Plurals

In this lesson you will learn how other singular nouns form their plurals. Notice the italicized nouns in the sentences below:

1. Washington's soldiers gained a great *victory*.
2. Washington's soldiers gained many great *victories*.
3. A foreign *country* lies across the sea.
4. Many foreign *countries* lie across the sea.

How are the singular forms of the words *victory* and *country* changed to form the plural?

Notice, however, the plural forms of these words: *day, days; monkey, monkeys; valley, valleys; boy, boys*; When *y* is preceded by a vowel (*a, e, i, o, u*), how is the plural formed?

Learn the following rule:

Nouns ending in *y*, not preceded by a vowel (*a, e, i, o, u*), change *y* to *i* and add *es* to the singular to form the plural.

How do the italicized nouns in sentences 1 and 3 below form their plurals?

1. I would give my *life* for my country.
2. We would give our *lives* for our country.
3. The *wolf* prowls around the camp at night.
4. The *wolves* prowl around the camp at night.

How do you spell the plural of *life*? of *wolf*? of *loaf*? of *wife*? of *shelf*? of *self*?

Learn the following rule:

Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* or *fe* to *ves* to form the plural.

There are some nouns that form the plural without *s*. Examples of these nouns and their plurals are:

child	children	goose	geese
man	men	foot	feet
woman	women	ox	oxen
tooth	teeth	mouse	mice

Some nouns have the same form for both singular and plural; as,

one deer	two deer	one salmon	three salmon
one sheep	four sheep	one trout	five trout
one quail	six quail	one swine	ten swine

Some nouns are generally used in the plural form; as,

annals	victuals	oats	tidings
billiards	mumps	scissors	tongs

Some nouns name groups or collections of persons or things, as:

flock	crowd	band	army	committee
herd	gang	club	society	family

Such nouns are called **collective nouns**. Although singular in form, these nouns are plural in meaning when we are thinking of the individual members of the groups named. When we think of the group as a whole, such a noun is considered singular. Why is a plural verb used in the first of these sentences, and a singular verb in the second?

The crew are ready to start.
That crew is winning.

Nouns such as *candlestick*, *commander-in-chief*, and *manservant*, which are composed of two or more words, are called **compound nouns**. In some compound nouns the first word only is made plural, in others the last word only is made plural, and in others both words are made plural; as,

candlestick	candlesticks
commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief
manservant	menservants

In compound words ending in *ful* the *s* should be added to the last syllable. Some people use the word *cupsful* when they really mean *cupfuls*. The plural of *cupful* is *cupfuls*. *Two cupfuls of flour* means that the same cup has been filled twice. When we mean that two different cups have been filled with flour, we use the separate words *cups* and *full*, and say *two cups full*. Name five other nouns that end in *ful* and use their plural forms in sentences.

To form the plural of letters and figures add 's; as, 8's, 4's, n's, t's; thus, we say "There are two n's in noun," and "There are three 8's in 1888."

Exercise. Write the plural of the following nouns and give the rule which you use in each case:

elf	fairy	penny	knife
lily	wharf	country	calf
thief	half	cupful	city
deer	foot	policeman	woman
ox	Englishman	baseman	goose
leaf	witch	bush	butterfly
bluejay	valley	flower	church
match	cat	desk	bench
lark	ditch	brother	box

27. Nouns Denoting Possession

You have already learned that a noun changes its form to denote ownership or possession. Read the following groups of words to see whether you can recall the rules for forming the possessive of a noun.

the <i>boy's</i> clothes	the <i>boys'</i> clothes
the <i>girl's</i> dresses	the <i>girls'</i> dresses
the <i>fisherman's</i> hut	the <i>fishermen's</i> hut
the <i>child's</i> toys	the <i>children's</i> toys
the <i>farmer's</i> plows	the <i>farmers'</i> plows

Which of the italicized nouns are singular? How is the possessive of the singular nouns formed? Which are the plural nouns? Is the possessive plural formed in the same way in every case? What are the two ways in which the possessive plural is formed? There are three rules to cover these cases.

Singular nouns form the possessive by adding 's.

Plural nouns ending in s form the possessive by adding the apostrophe only.

Plural nouns not ending in s form the possessive by adding 's.

Sometimes the preposition *of* is used with a noun to express possession, instead of the apostrophe. You may say *the hut of the fishermen* instead of *the fishermen's hut*. In speaking of non-living things it is nearly always better to use the preposition than to use the possessive form. Say *the color of the rug* rather than *the rug's color*; *the edge of the sidewalk* rather than *the sidewalk's edge*.

In the sentence "I am going to Jane's," the apostrophe must be used, because the sentence means "I am going to Jane's house."

Compound nouns form the possessive by adding 's to the last word of the compound; as, *mother-in-law's home*.

If two or more nouns in a series denote joint ownership, add 's to the last one only; as, *Emery, Bird, and Thayer's store is there*. If they denote separate ownership, add 's to each; as, *Emery's, Taylor's, and Peck's stores are three stores in our town*.

Exercises. A. Write the possessive forms of the following nouns. Arrange the words in double columns.

cats	Alice	fishermen	women	fox	horse
Mary	George	carpenters	friends	lion	flower

B. Make a list of all of the nouns denoting persons on page 29 of this book, and after each write its possessive singular and possessive plural.

C. Write a sentence about each of the following, using the possessive form of the nouns or the preposition *of*.

1. A dog that belongs to Ray
2. A front page that belongs to a newspaper
3. An injured paw that belongs to a lion
4. Money that belongs to a rich man
5. A tongue that belongs to a shoe

6. Cakes that belonged to a baker
7. A red rose that belongs to a lady
8. A cover that belonged to a dish
9. Candy that belongs to Robert
10. Wheat that belonged to a farmer

28. Subject Substantive and Predicate Verb

Point out the subject and the predicate of each of the following sentences:

1. Dogs growled.
2. Angry dogs growled fiercely at the man.

In the first sentence one word, *dogs*, tells what is spoken of, and one word, *growled*, tells what is said about *dogs*. What part of speech is each of these words?

In the second sentence, although there are two words in the subject, the noun *dogs* is still the particular word in the subject which tells what is spoken of; and although there are five words in the predicate, the verb *growled* is still the particular word in the predicate which asserts something about the subject. Nouns, pronouns, and words used as nouns and pronouns, are sometimes called **substantives**. The noun *dogs* may therefore be spoken of as a *substantive*. Since it is the subject, the noun *dogs* is called the **subject substantive** of the sentence, while the verb *growled* is called the **predicate verb**.

Now notice the other words in sentence 2. What word does *angry* modify? What part of speech is *angry*? The subject substantive, with its modifiers, is called the **complete subject**. *Angry dogs* is the complete subject of the sentence. What word does *fiercely* modify? What part of speech is *fiercely*? The group of words *at the man* is also a modifier

adding to the meaning of the verb *growled*, and is therefore part of the predicate. The predicate verb, with the words which complete its meaning, is called the **complete predicate**. In sentence 1, the subject substantive is the same as the complete subject, and the predicate verb is the same as the complete predicate. What are the complete subject and the complete predicate of sentence 2?

Point out the complete subject and the complete predicate, the subject substantive and the predicate verb, of each of these declarative sentences:

1. The huge fire burned brightly for several hours.
2. A strong gate barred the entrance.
3. He ran hastily down the steps.
4. We skated on the pond near my house.

What part of speech is *fire*? *post*? *he*? *we*? What two parts of speech, then, may be used as subject substantives?

Exercise. In each of the following sentences point out the complete subject and the complete predicate; the subject substantive and the predicate verb.

1. Our big dog looked in through the door.
2. The little kitten was badly scared.
3. It ran wildly out of the door.
4. What frightened you?
5. In great fright it jumped up on the edge of the rain barrel.
6. The cross old dog sprang at the kitten.
7. Over went the rain barrel.
8. The frisky squirrel ran out on a branch.
9. "Snow-Bound" is a beautiful poem.
10. I enjoyed it.

29. Verbs and Verb Phrases

In the sentence "My bird sings every morning," what is the complete predicate? Why? What word in the predicate tells what the bird does every morning? What part of speech is this word? Define this part of speech.

In the sentence "Mr. Brown killed a large snake," *killed a large snake* is the predicate, and *killed* is the verb. The verb *killed* tells what Mr. Brown did; it asserts the action of the subject. In the first sentence, *sings* tells what the bird does; it asserts action. Other verbs that assert action are: *climb*, *shoot*, *play*, *fight*, *run*, *work*, *swim*, and *jump*.

Some verbs do not express action. The most common of these is the verb *be*. You already know a few forms of this verb, such as *is*, *are*, *was*, and *were*. In the sentence "Rover is my dog," *is* is the verb. Point out the verb in the sentence "A dozen ripe peaches were on the tree." Such verbs are said to express *being*.

Which of the italicized verbs in the following sentences express action? Which express being?

1. He *is* a good friend.
2. Mabel *recited* her piece very well.
3. We *were* on that boat.
4. Robert *plays* baseball.

Verb Phrases. Frequently action or being is expressed by two or more words taken together as a single verb. In the sentences at the left, action or being is expressed by single words. In the sentences at the right, however, two or more words are used as a single verb.

The policeman <i>ran</i> down the street.	The policeman <i>was running</i> down the street.
---	---

Rachel <i>goes</i> down town for her lesson at two o'clock.	At what time <i>does</i> Rachel <i>go</i> down town for her lesson?
The postman <i>comes</i> about noon.	The postman <i>will come</i> about noon.
He <i>enjoys</i> the music.	He <i>would have enjoyed</i> the music.

Such groups of words as *was running*, *does go*, *will come*, and *would have enjoyed*, which do the work of single verbs, are usually called **verb phrases**. Sometimes, however, they are spoken of as verbs. Often the parts of a verb phrase are separated by other words, as in this interrogative sentence: "At what time *does* Rachel *go* down town for her lesson?" What is the verb phrase in this sentence?

Which of the verbs in the phrase *was running* is a form of the verb *ran*? Which verb in each of the other verb phrases is a form of the verb in the corresponding sentence at the left? *Running*, *go*, *come*, and *enjoyed* in these verb phrases are called **principal verbs**. The verbs *was*, *does*, *will*, *would*, and *have*, since they help the principal verbs to make assertions, are called **helping** or **auxiliary verbs**.

What is the principal verb in each of these verb phrases? Point out the auxiliary verb or verbs in each.

1. You *would have liked* that play.
2. *Will* you not *come* to the next performance?
3. We *shall* probably *see* you on Tuesday.
4. Dorothy *is studying* her lesson.

Exercises. A. In the following sentences the verbs are italicized. Which express action? Which express being?

1. My father *wrote* me a long letter.
2. John *skates* to school.
3. The hunters *shot* the deer.

4. No man *likes* a dusty road.
5. This *is* the first day of the month.
6. You *were* very kind to us.
7. Frank *knew* his lesson well.
8. Columbus *was* a brave man.

B. Copy the following sentences, underlining the verbs. How do you know that each is a verb?

1. Hiawatha made his canoe out of birch-bark.
2. How old is that little boy?
3. I read "Sir Galahad" yesterday.
4. Every knight carried a lance and a shield.
5. The Indians lived in wigwams.

C. Point out the verbs and verbs phrases in the following sentences. How do you know that each is a verb or verb phrase? What is the principal verb of each verb phrase? Point out the auxiliary verb or verbs in each.

1. She will be delighted with the picture.
2. The day passed very slowly.
3. The streets are swarming with people.
4. My watch has not been keeping good time.
5. How long shall I wait?
6. She has been working very hard.
7. They will probably travel many miles before dark.
8. Moss is usually most abundant on the north side of a tree.
9. Have your sweet peas blossomed yet?
10. You must be tired.
11. The yard was inclosed by a high fence.
12. Do you really like that game?

D. Copy the following incomplete sentences, supplying suitable verbs:

1. Where — my gloves?
2. Boys — on the ice.
3. Girls — better than boys.
4. Most people — three meals a day.
5. My peach — juicy.
6. I — a word in spelling today.

E. Write five sentences containing verbs or verb phrases that express action, and five containing verbs or verb phrases that express being. What is the subject substantive of each of these sentences? the verb or the verb phrase?

30. Review

Exercises. *A.* Are the following nouns singular or plural? common or proper?

violets	sheep	brush	boy
children	women	Panama	Japanese
Alabama	Africa	branches	taxes
Mexicans	daisies	valleys	handkerchiefs
fox	woman	knives	Cuba

B. Write the possessive singular and the possessive plural of the following nouns: *man, hunter, fox, thief, animal.*

Write the possessive forms of ten nouns denoting persons.

C. Separate the following sentences into subject and predicate. Draw one line under the subject substantive and two under the predicate verb.

1. Leif Ericson sailed to America in the year 1000.
2. The needy traveler, serene and gay, strode along the dusty road.
3. Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean.
4. With whom are you going?

5. Marquette sailed down the Mississippi River.
6. How bright the sky is!
7. Deciduous trees lose their foliage in the fall.
8. Now rings the woodland loud and long.

D. Which of the sentences in Exercise C are declarative? Which are interrogative? Are any of them exclamatory sentences? How may all interrogative and declarative sentences which do not express strong feeling be classified? Write three declarative, three interrogative, and three exclamatory sentences. What is the subject substantive and the predicate verb of each?

31. Person of Nouns and Pronouns

What is the definition of a pronoun? Notice carefully the pronouns in the following sentences:

1. *I* saw the fire.
2. Father gave the dime to *me*.
3. *We* gave the toys to the children.
4. John brought the book to *us*.

You have already learned that nouns may be either singular or plural. Pronouns also have singular and plural forms. Which of the pronouns in the sentences above are singular? Which are plural? How do you know?

Person of Pronouns. The pronouns in these sentences denote persons, and are called **personal pronouns**. A personal pronoun shows by its form whether it denotes the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

The pronouns *I* and *me* in the first and second sentences denote the speaker. The pronouns *we* and *us* denote the

speaker and one or more companions. These pronouns, which stand for the person or persons speaking, are said to be in the *first person*.

Pronouns which denote the speaker are said to be in the *first person*.

The pronouns in the following sentences denote the person or persons spoken to. Which of these pronouns is singular in meaning? Which is plural?

1. *You* will break that knife, John.
2. Where have *you* been, children?

The pronoun *you* denotes the person or persons spoken to, and is said to be in the *second person*. How many persons does *you* denote in the first sentence? in the second sentence?

Pronouns which denote the person spoken to are said to be in the *second person*.

Notice the pronouns in the following sentences:

1. *He* asked his father to give *him* a ride.
2. *She* liked the candy the girls sent *her*.
3. *It* is a good story; the boys and girls will enjoy *it*.
4. *They* have asked the teacher to read the story to *them*.

The pronouns *he*, *him*, *she*, and *her* denote the person spoken of; *it* denotes the place or thing spoken of; and *they* and *them* denote the persons, places, or things spoken of. All of these pronouns are said to be in the *third person*. Which of them are singular? Which are plural?

Pronouns which denote the person, place, or thing spoken of are said to be in the *third person*.

The personal pronouns, arranged according to number and person, are as follows:

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I, me	we, us
<i>Second Person</i>	you	you
<i>Third Person</i>	{ he, him	{ they, them
	{ she, her	
	{ it	

The personal pronouns which may be used as subject substantives are: *I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they*. You will learn later when it is correct to use the other forms.

Person of Nouns. Nouns, also, may stand for the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of; as,

1. I, Richard Gleason, saw the theft committed.
2. Conductor, please let me off at the next street.
3. The lady lost her glove.
4. Some flowers grow only in damp places.

In the first sentence the proper noun *Richard Gleason* is in the first person. Why? In what person is the noun *conductor* in the second sentence? The noun *lady* denotes the person spoken of, and the noun *flowers* the things spoken of. What is the person of these two nouns? Do nouns change their form to denote person?

Since nouns nearly always denote the person, place, or thing spoken of they are nearly always in the third person.

Position of Pronouns in a Series. You once learned the rule *When you speak of yourself, together with one or more other people, mention yourself last*; as,

1. *You* and *I* are in the same grade.
2. *Ellen* and *I* are in the same grade.
3. The farmer will give *you* and *me* some apples.
4. The farmer will give *Ellen* and *me* some apples.

What is the person of each of the italicized words in these sentences? What person is always mentioned last? Why should the speaker mention himself last?

When all three persons are used, the person spoken to should be mentioned first, the person spoken of next, and the person speaking last; as,

You, Ellen, and I are in the same grade.

The farmer will give *you, Ellen, and me* some apples.

The first personal pronoun stands last in a series.

Another simple rule which you already know and must always remember is:

Capitalize the pronoun *I*.

Exercises. *A.* Study the definitions and the rules in this lesson very carefully.

B. Use each of the following groups of words as the subject of a sentence. In what order should the words in each group be written?

I, Margaret
 I, you
 I, he
 I, you, she
 We, you, they
 They, Alice, I

What is the rule to follow?

C. Find all the nouns and personal pronouns in a selection of twenty lines in your reader. Give the number and person of each one.

32. Gender of Nouns and Pronouns

Which of the following nouns denote male beings? Which denote female beings?

Robert	man	girl	woman	Mary	princess
queen	lion	drake	hen	boy	king

Which of the following personal pronouns denote male beings? Which denote female beings?

he	him	she	her
----	-----	-----	-----

Do the following words denote either male or female beings?

it	pencil	pipe	its	cloth
----	--------	------	-----	-------

Nouns and pronouns which denote male beings are of the masculine gender.

Nouns and pronouns which denote female beings are of the feminine gender.

Nouns and pronouns which denote things that are neither male nor female are of the neuter gender. (*Neuter gender* means "neither gender.")

What personal pronouns are always masculine? Which are always feminine? The personal pronoun *I* may be either masculine or feminine. If a boy says, "I am tired," *I* is masculine. If a girl says, "I am tired," *I* is feminine.

Exercises. *A.* Arrange these pronouns in four columns under the headings—*Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, and Either Masculine or Feminine.*

I	her	he	we	they	she
you	me	it	him	us	them

B. Write in four columns the following nouns under the headings *Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, and Either Masculine or Feminine.*

desk	cousin	sister	niece	friend
father	lioness	mother	nephew	boy

girl	tiger	aunt	street	paper
box	teacher	grandfather	uncle	baby
woman	man	book	stranger	candidate

C. Make a list of all the nouns and personal pronouns in the following sentences, and tell the gender of each:

1. The Indian shot an arrow at the doe, but it missed her.
2. The roses in Mrs. Marsh's garden are in full bloom.
Perhaps she will invite us in to see them.
3. Do you hear a rooster crowing?
4. Many soldiers were killed in that battle.
5. The boys were tired when they reached home.
6. The children asked the teacher whether he would solve a problem for them.
7. Were the girls badly frightened? They looked very pale.
8. In winter the ground may be covered with snow. What will cock robin do then, poor thing?
9. John lost two marbles in the mud, and we could not find them.
10. Beth has written a good composition.
11. The old pilot told us many stories.
12. Jack and John practiced together.
13. The boy picked up a firecracker and set it off.
14. David Copperfield is the hero of one of Dickens's novels.
15. The king and queen held a reception.

33. Pronouns and Their Antecedents

1. Carl promised that *he* would go.
2. The little girl said *she* did not know the way.
3. Eva has a new book; *it* was bought in New York.

In the first sentence, to what word does the pronoun *he* refer? To what word does each of the other italicized words

refer? The word to which a pronoun refers is called its **antecedent**.

What is the gender of the antecedent of *he*? What is the gender of the pronoun *he*? Do the pronoun and its antecedent agree in gender? When the gender of the antecedent is masculine, the masculine form of the pronoun is used. In the second sentence the antecedent, *girl*, is feminine, and therefore the feminine form of the pronoun is used. In the third sentence the pronoun refers to the noun *book*, which is neither masculine nor feminine. The pronoun is, therefore, neuter. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender.

Now notice these sentences:

1. *Dorothy* said that *she* must go.
2. The *visitors* said that *they* must go.

What is the pronoun in the first sentence? What is its antecedent? What is the number of its antecedent? What is the number of the pronoun *she*? What is the antecedent of the pronoun in the second sentence? What is the number of the antecedent? of the pronoun? When the antecedent of a pronoun is singular, the pronoun referring to it should be singular. When the antecedent is plural, the pronoun referring to it should be plural.

1. I said that *I* would collect the papers.
2. You said that *you* would collect the papers.
3. She said that *she* would collect the papers.
4. The girl said that *she* would collect the papers.

What is the person of each of the italicized pronouns in these four sentences? What is the person of each antecedent? A pronoun is always in the same person as its antecedent.

A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

If it is impossible to tell the gender of the person referred to, the masculine form of the pronoun is used; as,

Each pupil should read the book assigned to *him*.

Exercises. *A.* In the following sentences supply the proper pronouns. Name the antecedent, and give the person, number, and gender of each pronoun, and the reason for its person, number, and gender.

1. Alan is my best friend. I can trust —.
2. The congressmen knew what the nation expected of —.
3. Every boy knows that — should grow up to be a brave man.
4. Each girl should remember that — has work to do.
5. Willis and I invite you to go with —.
6. Fred and Mildred want us to go with —.
7. Every boy must learn that — should speak correctly.
8. Each of the boys played that — was Santa Claus.
9. The boys and the girls promised that — would be kind to animals.
10. Every girl should keep the promises that — makes.
11. The boy says that — will try to do better.
12. The book lay on the table where I had placed —.
13. Mary came when I called —.
14. Donald studied his lesson just as I told — to study —.

34. How to Begin a Story

Have you ever told a story that you thought funny, or sad, or important, only to discover that it did not appeal to your audience at all? You may have blamed your hearers for not appreciating your story, when probably the real difficulty was that you did not tell it in the best way.

Perhaps the most important part of a story is the

beginning. Very often people decide, from the way a story begins, whether or not it is worth reading or listening to. You should, therefore, make sure that your beginning is an interesting one.

One way of catching people's attention is to make them feel that you are going to tell them something unusual. People like to hear about the best, the biggest, the most exciting, or the funniest thing. For instance, a seventh grade girl will be more interested in the beginning "I can tell you the recipe for making the *best fudge I ever tasted*," than in the beginning "I can tell you how to make fudge." The beginning "I can tell you how to earn a quarter *without much work*" would be much more likely to attract the attention of a twelve-year-old boy than the beginning "I can tell you how to earn a quarter." People like to hear about the unusual.

Another way of interesting people is to make them wonder what is coming next. Notice the following beginning:

With the exception of Captain Radford's wife, Jane, and Captain Radford's son, Theodore, every human being in Greysheles believed that Captain Radford was as dead as a salt mackerel.

When you read this you wonder, "Was Captain Radford really dead? But if he was, why did his wife and son still believe he was alive?" You are interested to know how the author is going to answer these questions. This beginning catches your attention by making you wonder.

Besides being interesting, the first part of a story should give certain information. The reader needs to know, as soon as possible, *who* the characters are, and, in a general way, *when* the events occurred, and *where* they occurred.

The beginning of a story is sometimes called the **introduction**. Notice these three introductions. Are they interesting? Why? Which ones tell *who*, *when*, and *where*?

I

Anybody can make money! Yes, and you don't have to work in a mint to do it either. There is no trick in it at all.

II

When I was a boy there was one story which my sisters and brothers and I were never tired of hearing mother tell; for our own mother was its heroine and the scene of the thrilling chase was not more than a mile and a half from our own door. Indeed we often went coasting on the very hill down which she took her fearful ride, and skated on the pond which was the scene of her adventure. I can still distinctly remember how, when the long winter evenings came and the snow lay deep upon the ground and the wind whistled stormily without, we children would gather around the great sheet-iron stove in the sitting-room of the old farm-house and beg mother to tell us stories of the perils and hardships of her pioneer days; and how invariably before the evening was over some one of us would ask, "Now mother, please do tell us, just once more, how you escaped from the wolves, when a girl, by coasting down Peek's Hill."

EVERETT McNEIL

III

Sometimes writers begin stories with conversation, as Louisa M. Alcott does in *Little Women*:

"Christmas won't be Christmas without any presents," grumbled Jo, lying on the rug.

"It's so dreadful to be poor!" sighed Meg, looking down at her old dress.

Exercises. A. Examine your reader to see how some of the stories and poems begin. Notice the beginnings of

stories in other books, and in magazines. Bring to class three examples of what you think are good beginnings. Tell why you think they are good.

B. Pretend that you are telling a story about one of the following subjects; or, if you prefer, you may choose some other subject—perhaps one of your personal experiences. Then write a good beginning for the story.

1. The Ghost at the Old White House
2. A Cave in the Woods
3. How I Killed a Rattlesnake
4. The Mystery of the Hidden Treasure
5. My First Day at School

35. Sticking to the Point

Sometimes a speaker begins a story so well that at first every one listens. But after a while the audience grows restless and inattentive. Why do you suppose this is? One reason may be that the speaker does not *stick to the point* of his story. In other words, he introduces ideas or incidents which have no connection with the story.

The main part of a story is sometimes called the **body** of the story. In telling the incidents which make up the body of the story, try to stick to the point.

Read carefully the following paragraph:

Many hundred years ago there lived an honest old woodcutter and his wife. A woodcutter is a man who cuts wood for his living. One fine morning the old man went off to the hills with his hatchet to gather a bundle of sticks, while his wife went down to the river to wash the clothes. Clothes are so hard to wash that children should be careful to keep their clothing clean. That's what my mother says. When she came to the river she

saw a peach floating down the stream. Peaches don't usually float, but this one did. So she picked it up and carried it home with her, intending to give it to her husband to eat. He took his dinner up to the hills with him in a tin dinner pail. The old man soon came down from the hills and the good wife set the peach before him. There was a red tablecloth on the table. Just as she was inviting him to eat it, the fruit split in two. You can easily split a peach stone in two if you put the knife in in the right way. There was a tiny babe inside the peach stone. The old couple took the baby and brought it up as their own, and because it had been born in a peach, they called it Little Peachling.

What is the story in this paragraph? What sentences do not seem necessary? Did the writer stick to the point? Give a reason for your answer.

Read the following paragraph:

Many hundred years ago there lived an honest old woodcutter and his wife. One fine morning the old man went off to the hills with his hatchet to gather a bundle of sticks, while his wife went down to the river to wash the clothes. When she came to the river, she saw a peach floating down the stream; so she picked it up, and carried it home with her, intending to give it to her husband to eat. When the old man came down from the hills, the good wife set the peach before him. But just as she was inviting him to eat it, the fruit split in two, and inside the stone was a tiny babe. The old couple took the baby and brought it up as their own; and, because it had been born in a peach, they called it Little Peachling.

A. B. MITFORD, adapted by Eva March Tappan

What is the story in this paragraph? Is it the same story as that told in the paragraph above? Is every sentence in this paragraph necessary to the story? Did the writer stick to the point? Illustrate by quoting from the paragraph.

Which of these paragraphs do you think is the better? Why?

Exercise. Prepare a story on one of the following subjects to tell in class. Notice whether or not you stick to the point. Ask your classmates to tell you whether you used any sentences which had nothing to do with the story.

1. The Biggest Fire I Ever Saw
2. Why the Ship Sank
3. How Jim Made the Last Touchdown
4. A Story of Grandmother's Girlhood
5. How I Baked My First Cake

Ask your friends in school and at home to tell you whenever you wander from the subject in your conversation. Be your own severe critic.

36. How to End a Story

Every well constructed story, besides beginning in an interesting way, leads up to an interesting ending. One of the best endings for a story is a surprise.

The great French story writer, De Maupassant, wrote a story about a poor woman who lost a diamond necklace which she had borrowed from a friend. In order to make good the loss, she borrowed ten thousand dollars and bought another necklace. She gave this necklace to her friend without telling her what had happened. After many years of hardship spent in paying back the money she had borrowed, the poor woman met her friend, and this conversation, with which the story ends, took place:

THE NECKLACE

"You remember that diamond necklace that you lent me to go to the ball at the Ministry?"

"Yes. And then?"

"Well, I lost it."

"How can that be?—since you brought it back to me?"

"I brought you back another just like it. And now for ten years we have been paying for it. You will understand that it was not easy for us, who had nothing. At last it is done, and I am very glad."

Mme. Forester had guessed.

"You say that you bought a diamond necklace to replace mine?"

"Yes. You did not notice it, even, did you? They were exactly alike?"

And she smiled with proud and naïve joy.

Mme. Forester, much moved, took her by both hands:—

"Oh, my poor Mathilde. But mine were false. At most they were worth five hundred francs!"

GUY DE MAUPASSANT

What is the ending? It is startling, isn't it? How do you suppose Mathilde felt? Was she glad or sorry to hear that the diamonds she had lost were false?

The ending of a story is usually called the **conclusion**. The conclusion closes the story for us. The particular kind of conclusion used varies with the kind of story. In "The Necklace" the conclusion is the *climax*, or surprise.

The ending of a story should never be drawn out. Notice in how few words the surprise is told by Mme. Forester. If anything had been added after this, the ending of the story would have been spoiled. De Maupassant knew when the story was finished and ended it there, whereas a less skillful writer might have been tempted to add a few comments or explanations which would have destroyed the dramatic quality of the ending.

Exercise. Bring to class an example of a good conclusion. Tell why you think it is a good one.

37. Outlining a Story

Have you ever heard any one who was telling a story interrupt himself with the remark, "Oh, I forgot to say . . .," and then tell something which should have been told before? This way of telling a story is very confusing to the listener.

You already know that making an outline of an oral composition helps you to remember the points of the composition in their proper order. For the same reason, an outline is necessary for written work. You will find that making an outline will help you to stick to the point and to tell the events in their proper order.

This poem of Whitman's tells the story of a sea fight. Read the first stanza. The first stanza is the introduction. Is it a good one? Why? Now read the poem through, noticing the description of the fight. What stanza is the conclusion?

Would you hear of an old-time sea fight?
Would you learn who won by the light of the moon and stars?
List to the yarn as my grandmother's father, the sailor, told
it to me.

Our foe was no skulk in his ship, I tell you (said he);
His was the surly English pluck, and there is no tougher or
truer, and never was, and never will be;
Along the lower'd eve he came horribly raking us.

We closed with him, the yards entangled, the cannon touch'd,
My captain lash'd fast with his own hands.
We had receiv'd some eighteen pound shots under the water,
On our lower-gun-deck two large pieces had burst at the first
fire, killing all around and blowing up overhead.

Fighting at sun-down, fighting at dark,
Ten o'clock at night, the full moon well up, our leaks on the
gain, and five feet of water reported,
The master-at-arms loosing the prisoners confined in the
afterhold to give them a chance for themselves.

The transit to and from the magazine is now stopped by the
sentinels,
They see so many strange faces they do not know whom to
trust.

Our frigate takes fire,
The other asks if we demand quarter?
If our colors are struck and the fighting done?

Now I laugh content, for I hear the voice of my little captain,
"We have not struck," he composedly cried; "we have just
begun our part of the fighting."

Only three guns are in use;
One is directed by the captain himself against the enemy's
mainmast;
Two well serv'd with grape and canister silence his musketry
and clear his decks.

The tops alone second the fire of this little battery, especially
the main-top;
They hold out bravely during the whole of the action.

Not a moment's cease,
The leaks gain fast on the pumps, the fire eats toward the
powder-magazine.

One of the pumps has been shot away; it is generally thought
we are sinking.

Serene stands the little captain;
 He is not hurried, his voice is neither high nor low,
 His eyes give more light to us than our battle-lanterns.

Toward twelve there in the beams of the moon they surrender
 to us.

WALT WHITMAN

Into what three parts may a story be divided? The story in this poem might be outlined as follows:

I. Introduction

II. Body

1. The fight begins.
2. The fighting continues after dark.
3. The ship takes fire.
4. The captain refuses to surrender.
5. The enemy's guns are nearly silenced.
6. The ship begins to leak.
7. One of the pumps is shot away.

III. Conclusion—The enemy surrenders.

Read the introduction to the story; the body of the story; the conclusion.

With what words does the author tell us *who*, *when*, and *where* in the introduction? Notice how the interest is kept up to the very last line of the poem. Is there a surprise in the conclusion? How many words are there in the conclusion?

Tell in class the story of the sea-fight, using the outline just given.

38. Outlining a Story (Continued)

The selection from Whitman tells a story in poetry. Read carefully the following story in prose, noticing the introduction, the events, and the conclusion:

The evening before Christmas Margaret Poole went up to the post office. The last mail was in, but there was no letter containing money from her son Joseph. Then she kept on to the store. She might have been there ten minutes when she suddenly noticed a parcel on the corner of the counter. It was nicely tied.

Margaret had always been an honest woman, but she could not bear the thought of disappointing her three motherless little grandchildren on Christmas morning. Warily glancing around, she slipped that parcel under her arm, opened the door, and sped home.

A few weeks after that, Marg'ret went into Mr. White's store and slyly laid some money on the counter. She knew it to be enough to cover the cost of the articles she had stolen. Then she went away and left it there.

That night she went after her Bible. "I declare I will read it tonight," muttered she. "I've paid for 'em." She stood eying it. Suddenly she began to cry. "Oh, dear!" she groaned; "I can't. There don't anything do any good. I dun know what I shall do."

She looked at the clock. It was about nine. "He won't be gone yet," said she. She stood motionless, thinking. "If I'm goin' tonight, I've got to," she muttered. Still she did not start for a while longer. When she did, there was no more hesitation. No argument could have stopped Marg'ret Poole, in her old hood and shawl, pushing up the road, fairly started on her line of duty. When she got to the store she went in directly. The heavy door slammed to and the glass panels clattered. Mr. White was alone in the store. He was packing up some goods preparatory to closing. Margaret went straight up to him and laid a package before him on the counter.

"I brought these things back," said she; "they belong to you."

"Why, what is it?" said Mr. White wonderingly.

"Some things I stole last Christmas for the children."

"What!"

"I stole 'em."

She untied the parcel and began taking out the things one by one. "They're all here but the candy," said she; "the children ate that up; an' Aggie bit the head off this pink cat the other day. Then they've jammed this little horse considerable. But I brought 'em all back."

Mr. White was an elderly, kind-faced man. He seemed slowly paling with amazement as he stared at her and the articles she was displaying.

"You say you stole them?" said he.

"Yes, I stole 'em."

"When?"

"The night afore Christmas."

"Didn't Henry give 'em to you?"

"No."

"Why, I told him to," said Mr. White slowly. "I did the things up for you myself that afternoon. I'd seen you looking kind of wishful, you know, and I thought I'd make you a present of them. I left the bundle on the counter when I went to supper, and told Henry to tell you to take it, and I supposed he did."

Marg'ret stood staring. Her mouth was open, her hands were clinched. "I dun know—what you mean," she gasped out at length.

"I mean you haven't been stealing as much as you thought you had," said Mr. White. "You just took your own bundle."

Adapted from "A Stolen Christmas,"
by MARY E. WILKINS FREEMAN

Does this author tell *who*, *when*, and *where* at the beginning of this story? Make an outline of this story, under the following headings, using one sentence for the introduc-

tion, one for each of the points in the body of the story, and one for the conclusion :

- I. Introduction
- II. Body
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - 4.
- III. Conclusion

39. Writing a Short Story

Now suppose that you have been asked to write a story entitled "An Escaped Polar Bear." How will you go to work to prepare the outline and write the story? The title tells you that the main incident of the story is to be the escape of a polar bear. You will next have to imagine when, where, and how the incident occurred. This will be the introduction. In order to make the story as exciting as possible you will probably decide to have the escape occur in the midst of a crowd of people. Perhaps the bear might escape from his cage at a circus, or he might break loose in the night on the ship or train which was carrying him to some zoo. Lastly, you will need to tell how the incident ended.

If you decide to have the setting or scene of your story a circus, you will plan it according to the following preliminary headings:

- I. Introduction
 - The location of the circus ground, who went to the circus, and when
- II. Body of the Story
 - What happened

III. Conclusion

How the incident ended.

The next step is to imagine just what happened. As you think more in detail about the story, you will find yourself answering various questions such as these:

I. Where were you when the incident which you are going to describe took place—on the grounds or inside the tent? Were there many animals about? What were most of them doing? What were the people doing?

II. What suddenly attracted your attention? What was the polar bear doing? How did he look? Were you frightened? Were other people frightened? Why? What did the bear's keepers do?

III. What finally happened to the bear? Did his keepers capture him? How? What did they do with him? How did you feel when he was again shut up in his cage, or was being led out of the tent?

When the incidents of the story are clear in your mind, you are ready to write the outline which you will use. Your outline might, for instance, be:

I. Introduction

1. My father takes me to the circus. (Tell when and where.)

II. Body of the Story

1. We go from one cage to another, watching the animals.

2. A polar bear breaks loose.

3. Everybody is panic-stricken.

4. The keepers have difficulty in getting the bear back into his cage.

III. Conclusion

1. The bear is forced back into his cage.

Lastly, with the imaginary details of the story in mind, and with the outline to help you to remember the order of the incidents, you are ready to write the story.

Exercises. *A.* Write a story entitled "An Escaped Polar Bear." You may either use the outline given in this lesson or imagine the incident as occurring under different circumstances and make an outline of your own. Be careful to arrange the incidents of the body of the story in the order of their occurrence.

B. Prepare outlines for stories on three of the following subjects. Write one of the stories.

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. My First Gun | 6. Queer Tracks in the Snow |
| 2. When the Ice Broke | 7. Gathering Honey |
| 3. Lost in the Woods | 8. Caught in the Act |
| 4. Winning the Game | 9. A Mishap While Fishing |
| 5. Too Late | 10. What Happened One Halloween |

40. Anecdotes

A brief account of an incident that is particularly interesting or amusing is called an **anecdote**. An anecdote is not nearly so long as a short story; often it is only a bit of amusing conversation.

The first sentence of an anecdote should give the setting or explain the situation. Usually the surprise or climax is told in the last sentence.

Notice where the climax comes in each of the following anecdotes:

I

John and Harry were fellow students in the French class at high school. One summer John spent his vacation in France.

When the boys met again in September, Harry asked, "Did you have any trouble with your French in Paris, John?"

"No, I didn't," replied John, "but the French people did."

II

A recently enlisted soldier was walking post for the first time. A dark form approached him. "Halt!" cried the sentinel in a threatening tone. "Who are you?"

"The officer of the day."

"Advance!"

The officer of the day advanced, but before he had proceeded half a dozen steps the sentinel again cried, "Halt!"

"This is the second time you have halted me," observed the officer. "What are you going to do next?"

"Never you mind. My orders are to call 'Halt!' three times and then shoot."

YOUTH'S COMPANION

III

Sometimes the point of the anecdote depends upon the double meaning of a word. What are the two meanings of the word *crane* in the following anecdote?

A young American, visiting in England, was telling his English friend about an accident that he had witnessed in an industrial plant in New York.

"And poor Harry was killed by a revolving crane," he continued.

At this point the Englishman interrupted to say, "My word! What fierce birds you have in America!"

Exercise. For today's lesson you may tell the class an anecdote. Be sure that you choose one that is entertaining and one that really has a climax. Remember that the anecdote must be brief and to the point.

41. Review—Oral Composition

If you will refer to the checking list at the back of the book, you will find the following rules for oral composition:

9. Select a subject interesting to your audience.
10. Outline your talk.
11. Have an interesting but brief beginning.
12. Arrange your ideas in an orderly way.
13. Stick to the point.
14. Make your ending brief.
15. Practice telling your story to yourself before class.

With these rules in mind, compose a story to complete the following introduction, which is taken from one of Louisa M. Alcott's stories. Before you tell your story in class, read again the directions in Lesson 22.

"Please, sir, is this Plumfield?" asked a ragged boy of the man who opened the great gate at which the omnibus left him.
"Yes; who sent you?"

42. Kinds of Adjectives

What is an adjective?

Notice the adjectives in these sentences:

1. The *orange* sky of evening died away.
2. He walked down the middle of the *white, dusty* road.

The adjective *orange* tells us about the appearance of the sky. That is, it *describes* the noun sky. Adjectives that describe are called **descriptive adjectives**. What adjectives describe the road? What kind of adjectives are they?

Descriptive adjectives that are formed from proper nouns are called **proper adjectives**.

1. Seattle is an *American* city.
2. Montreal is a *Canadian* city.

American and *Canadian* are proper adjectives because they are derived from the proper nouns *America* and *Canada*.

Begin a proper adjective with a capital letter.

All adjectives which are not proper adjectives may, in distinction from proper adjectives, be spoken of as *common adjectives*.

Point out the descriptive adjectives in the following sentences, and tell what each modifies. Which of them are proper adjectives?

1. He had a stern, savage, and wild aspect.
2. His jacket was gathered at the middle by a broad leather belt fastened by a brass buckle.
3. In the belt was stuck a long, sharp-pointed, two-edged knife with a buckhorn handle.
4. His thick hair had been scorched by the sun into a rusty dark-red color.
5. A brass ring, resembling a dog-collar, was soldered around his neck.
6. On it was engraved an inscription in Saxon words.
7. There was a Dutch clock on the table.

Some adjectives, instead of describing, limit or point out.

1. *Few* people in the town had heard of him.
2. *Four* or *five* cows were grazing in the field.
3. *That* bookcase contains *many* books.
4. *No* man had ever seen *this* cave.

The adjectives *few*, *four*, *five*, *many*, and *no* tell how many. *This* and *that* point out. Such adjectives as these, which limit or point out, are called **limiting adjectives**.

Limiting adjectives may be divided, as follows, into several different classes:

Possessive: my, your, his, her, its, our, their, whose

Demonstrative: this, that, these, those

Indefinite: some, any, no, every, each, other, neither, both, etc.

Interrogative: which, what

Numeral { *Cardinal*: one, two, three, etc.
 { *Ordinal*: first, second, third, etc.

The Articles { *Definite*: the
 { *Indefinite*: a, an

The possessive adjectives limit nouns by showing possession; as,

That is *my* hat.

I do not know where *your* hat is.

The demonstrative adjectives point out with definiteness one or more of several objects; as,

This pencil in my hand belongs to me.

That pencil probably belongs to you.

These pencils belong to me.

Those pencils belong to you.

The indefinite adjectives point out or limit, but less definitely than the demonstrative adjectives; as,

Neither boy knew the answer.

I have *several* apples in my bag.

You will learn more about possessive, demonstrative, and indefinite adjectives in later lessons, and you will find that some of them are also used as pronouns.

The adjectives *which* and *what* are often used in asking questions; as,

Which dog do you like better?

What countries did you visit?

These adjectives, when so used, are called **interrogative adjectives**.

The numeral adjectives are used to indicate number; as,

There are *two* books on the table.

This is my *second* attempt.

The most common of the limiting adjectives are the **articles**, *a*, *an*, and *the*. *A* and *an* are called *indefinite* articles because they point out less definitely than the *definite* article *the*. For instance, *A dog likes meat* means that any dog likes meat. But *The dog likes candy* means that some particular dog likes candy. *An* is used instead of *a* before a word beginning with a vowel or a vowel sound; as, *an orange*; *an honest servant*.

Notice that in such sentences as "The secretary and the treasurer of the firm are away," the article is repeated before the second noun when two people are meant. If we say, "The secretary and treasurer of the firm is away," we mean that one person is both secretary and treasurer. In this case *the* is not repeated before the second noun.

Point out the limiting adjectives in the following sentences and tell what word each modifies:

1. His hair has not been brushed for two days.
2. I did not know whose voice that was.
3. These rubbers belong to me; those overshoes belong to you.
4. Have you any paper for the compositions?
5. Which story did you read the first night you had the book?
6. I have worked for three hours on one lesson.

7. The parrot wants a cracker every morning.
8. Both boys brought some apples to school every day.

Exercises. *A.* What noun or pronoun does each of these adjectives modify? Which adjectives are descriptive? which limiting? which proper?

1. *What* poems about birds do you know?
2. O, the *white* sea-gull, the *wild* sea-gull,
A *joyful* bird is he.
3. *Little* bird with bosom *red*,
Welcome to my *humble* shed.
4. There is a robin's nest in *that large maple* tree.
5. *All* people should help to protect birds.
6. I have my *pretty red* rubbers on.
7. The duck makes a *little three-toed* track in the *soft, cool* mud.
8. *Which* books did you buy at the *little* book shop?
9. Are any of these books by *American* authors?

B. Make a list, as large as you can, of adjectives which may be used to describe each of these nouns: *cat, day, night, wind, sun.*

C. Find the adjectives in the following sentences. What word does each one modify? Tell whether each adjective is descriptive or limiting. Which are proper adjectives?

1. Out of the houses the rats came tumbling,
Great rats, small rats, lean rats, brawny rats,
Brown rats, black rats, gray rats, tawny rats,
Grave old plodders, gay young friskers,
Fathers, mothers, uncles, cousins.
2. The third house on this shady street is Alice's.
3. We like this little Swiss town very much.
4. I bought two large, ripe bananas this morning on my way to school.

5. The Italian fruit-dealer on that corner has very good oranges.
6. Some people do not like the country; other people prefer it to the city.
7. I have read several interesting Indian legends about animals.
8. Which house belongs to your brother?
9. These damp matches will not light.
10. Our little black kitten has hurt his paw.

D. Look up in your dictionary the spelling of the proper adjectives derived from these nouns. Write twelve sentences in each of which a proper adjective derived from one of these nouns is used.

- | | |
|------------|-------------|
| 1. America | 7. Italy |
| 2. Canada | 8. Brazil |
| 3. Mexico | 9. Russia |
| 4. England | 10. Germany |
| 5. Belgium | 11. Greece |
| 6. France | 12. Denmark |

E. What adjectives do you use most often? Are they *nice*, *awful*, *cute*, *keen*, *sweet*, and *great*? If you have only a few adjectives in your vocabulary, you probably use them too frequently, and on occasions when other adjectives would really express your meaning much more accurately. Make a class list of adjectives that you use too frequently, and place it on the board. Look in your dictionaries for **synonyms** of these over-worked adjectives. Synonyms are words which have the same meaning, or are similar in meaning. Make an effort to use appropriate synonyms instead of the adjectives in the list.

43. Possessive Adjectives and Possessive Pronouns

My pencil is broken. *Our* pencils are broken.
Mine is broken. *Ours* are broken.

What do the italicized words in these sentences denote? What word does *my* modify? What are words called that modify nouns or pronouns? In what way is *mine* used in the second sentence? What two words does it stand for?

My is called a **possessive adjective** because (1) it denotes possession and (2) it modifies a noun. Likewise *our* is a possessive adjective. Why?

Mine also denotes possession. But in the sentence "Mine is broken," *mine* does not modify another word. It is used as the subject of the sentence. Moreover it stands for the two words *my pencil*. What is the definition of a pronoun? *Mine* is called a **possessive pronoun** because (1) it denotes possession and (2) it is used instead of a noun. *Ours* is also a possessive pronoun. Why?

What is the difference between a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun?

The words *my, his, her, its, our, your, their, and whose*, when used to modify nouns, are called possessive adjectives. What are the possessive adjectives in these sentences?

I like your white kitten better than her black cat.
 Their garage is near his house.

The words *mine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs, and whose*, when used in the place of nouns, are called possessive pronouns. Point out the possessive pronouns:

Hers is better than theirs.
 That racket is his; may I borrow yours?

Some people say *ourn, yourn, hisn, hern, and theirn*. But these forms are incorrect and should never be used.

Notice that the possessive adjective *its* has no apostrophe. You must be careful not to confuse this form with the contraction *it's*, which requires the apostrophe. *It's* stands for *it is*, as in the sentence "*It's* a robin." But *its* is a possessive adjective and modifies a noun; as, "*Its* nest is in a tree."

Compounds may be formed by adding *self* to *my*, *your*, *him*, *her*, and *it*, and by adding *selves* to *our*, *your*, and *them*. These words are called **compound personal pronouns**. The compound personal pronouns are:

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	
<i>First Person</i>	myself	ourselves	
<i>Second Person</i>	yourself	yourselves	
<i>Third Person</i>	{ himself	{ themselves	
	{ herself		{ themselves
	{ itself		{ themselves

The compound personal pronouns may be used for emphasis, as in the sentence "I myself will see that it is done;" or they may be used in the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence; as, "I hurt myself," "John hurt himself," etc.

Exercises. A. How do you distinguish between a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun? Find the possessive adjectives and the possessive pronouns in the following sentences. How is each one used? What personal pronouns do you find? What is the person and number of each? Which ones are compound?

1. The president consulted his cabinet.
2. He thought that it was hers.
3. Their guide led them over a dangerous pass.
4. With heavy hearts they sailed away from their native land.

5. Our country calls for volunteers.
6. Melba sang her most beautiful song to us.
7. Her mother called her to play for them.
8. I took your book, for I thought it was mine.
9. My ambition is to become a useful citizen of my country..
10. Americans love liberty and will fight for it.
11. The book that has my initials on its cover is mine.
12. How was I to know that it was his?
13. Here is mine; where is yours?
14. Our friends treat us kindly.
15. She gathered the violets and took them to her grandmother.
16. I shall call you when I leave their house.
17. She stood upon our porch and watched the mighty waves.
18. We ourselves were on that train.
19. Your friends are their enemies.
20. His inkwell is empty but mine is full.
21. He lowered himself into the well.
22. Its wing is broken.
23. Whose pet is that?
24. Ours is kept in his house.
25. She herself went to the door.
26. It's very good coasting near his house.

B. Use each of the possessive adjectives in a sentence. Use each of the possessive pronouns in a sentence; each of the compound personal pronouns in a sentence. See whether you can use more than one of these three forms in each sentence. If so, you may not need to write more than eight or ten sentences.*

44. Possessive Adjectives and Their Antecedents

In what three ways does a pronoun agree with its antecedent? A possessive adjective also refers to an antecedent, as in the following sentences:

1. The boy neglected *his* duty.
2. The boys neglected *their* duties.
3. We neglected *our* duties.
4. She neglected *her* duty.

What is the antecedent of *his* in the first sentence? What is the number of *boy*? of the possessive adjective *his*? Does the possessive adjective agree with its antecedent in number? in person? in gender? Answer the same questions for each of the other sentences.

A possessive adjective agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

Write ten sentences in which the possessive adjectives agree with their antecedents in person, number, and gender.

There are a number of cases in which you will need to be especially careful to choose a possessive adjective of the correct number and gender.

1. What is a collective noun? A possessive adjective which refers to a collective noun is singular when the collective noun is thought of as denoting the group as a whole; but plural when the collective noun is thought of as denoting the individual members of a group; as,

The class learned *its* lesson well. (The class is considered as a unit.)

The class learned *their* lessons well. (The individual members of the group are thought of.)

The herd of cattle plodded on *its* way. (One body or unit.)

The herd of cattle plodded on *their* way. (The individual animals making up the group are thought of.)

2. A possessive adjective which refers to a singular noun or singular nouns modified by such adjectives as *each*, *every*, *neither*, *either*, must be singular; as,

Every man was paid *his* salary.

Every bush and every tree received *its* share of attention.

Neither girl finished *her* work.

3. A possessive adjective which refers to singular nouns connected by *or* or *nor* must be singular. When the nouns or pronouns joined by *or* or *nor* are plural, the possessive adjective is plural; as,

Neither Ruth nor Mary did *her* best.

Neither the boys nor the girls did *their* best.

4. A possessive adjective which refers to several nouns connected by *and* should be plural unless these words denote the same person or thing; as,

The secretary and treasurer of the Good Language Club has done *his* best.

The secretary and the treasurer of the Good Language Club have done *their* best.

Helen and Ruth left *their* coats in the hall.

Give the reason for the number of the possessive adjective in each of the above sentences.

5. When a possessive adjective refers to nouns or pronouns of different genders it is permissible to use a possessive adjective of the masculine gender. But if you wish to use the language of precision, repeat the possessive adjective with the corresponding gender.

Neither a boy nor a girl should have *his* own way all the time.

Neither a boy nor a girl should have *his* or *her* own way all the time.

6. When the gender of the antecedent is unknown, use a possessive adjective of the masculine gender; as,

Each one had *his* own way.

Every pupil had *his* own desk.

Exercises. A. Write the following sentences correctly and give the reason for your choice of each possessive adjective:

1. Everyone must learn to use (his, their) language carefully.
2. No one took (his, their) seat at the proper time.
3. Every girl and every boy should develop (his, her, their) sense of humor.
4. Each child played with (his, their) own toys.
5. Every one in the class opened (his, their) book.
6. Every person in the group had (his, their) own opinion.
7. The judge and benefactor gave vent to (his, their) feelings.
8. The judge and the benefactor gave vent to (his, their) feelings.
9. The army hastened on (its, their) march.
10. Not one of the boys broke (his, their) pencil point.
11. Men and women should hold to (his, their) statements.
12. A man or a woman should hold to (his, her, their) statements.
13. Neither a man nor a woman should forget (his, her, their) promise.
14. Everyone should keep (his, her, their) promise.
15. The mate as well as the captain retained (his, their) self-control.
16. No one ever forgets to eat (his, her, their) lunch at a picnic.
17. Every one of the pupils ought to know (his, their, her) lessons.
18. Did any one of the boys lose (his, their) gloves?

B. Write two sentences to illustrate each of the six special cases of the agreement of a possessive adjective with its antecedent. In each sentence give the reason for the person, number, and gender of the possessive adjective used.

45. Uses of Adverbs

What is an adverb? Point out the adverbs in these sentences, and tell what part of speech each modifies.

1. Ralph writes slowly.
2. You have a very pretty garden.
3. She sings too softly.

Now read the following sentences and notice how each adverb is used.

1. The boat floated *rapidly* down the stream.
2. She will finish her work *early*.
3. We shall have our supper *here*.
4. He had *hardly* recovered before he was *again* taken sick.

In the first sentence the adverb *rapidly* describes the manner in which the boat floated down the stream; that is, it answers the question *how*. *Early* in the second sentence tells *when* she will finish her work. *Here* in the third sentence tells *where* we shall have our supper. *Hardly* in the last sentence tells *to what extent* he had recovered. Adverbs are usually used to tell *how*, *when*, *where*, or *to what extent*.

What question do the adverbs in the first column answer? in the second? in the third? in the fourth?

rapidly	never	here	very
slowly	always	there	so

easily	now	near	much
faintly	often	far	not
quietly	again	away	scarcely

Use two adverbs from each of these columns in sentences; tell what question each adverb answers, and what part of speech it modifies.

Frequently nouns are used adverbially, as in the sentence:

We walked *miles* through the open country.

Since *miles* is the name of a thing, it is a noun. But in this sentence it is used as an adverb answering the question *how far*, or *to what extent* he walked.

Explain the use of each of the italicized words in these sentences:

1. We worked an *hour* and then went *home*.
2. Last *night* I went to bed early.
3. We shall have a test *Thursday*.
4. The room is thirty *feet* long.
5. I have studied grammar a *year*.

The adjective *good* is sometimes used incorrectly for the adverb *well*. Study carefully the following correct sentences and you will learn how to use these words correctly.

1. Helen is a good singer.
2. How well Helen sings!
3. A good singer can sing well.
4. Rose does good work.
5. Rose always does her work well.

What word does *good* modify in the first sentence? in the third sentence? in the fourth sentence? What part of speech is *singer*? *work*? What word does *well* modify in the

second sentence? in the third? in the fifth? What part of speech is each of these words? What question does the adverb *well* answer?

The adverb *almost* means "nearly". It is incorrect to use the adjective *most* for the adverb *almost*. When you are in doubt whether to use *most* or *almost*, notice what word is to be modified. If the word to be modified is a verb, adjective, or adverb, use *almost*. If the word to be modified is a noun or a pronoun use *most*.

Is *almost* the correct word to use in these sentences? How do you know? What part of speech does *almost* modify in each sentence?

1. Mr. Edgerton's car *almost* struck that wagon.
2. I am *almost* sure that Alice will come.
3. Louise is *almost* well enough to go to school.

Sure is an adjective; *surely* is an adverb. What parts of speech must *surely* modify? *sure*? Why is *surely*, rather than *sure*, correct in the following sentences?

1. I will *surely* do it tomorrow.
2. Susan *surely* laid the book on the table.

There is often an adverb, meaning "in that place." Notice its use in the following sentences:

1. I left my pocket-book *there*.
2. *There* lay the book.

Sometimes it is used merely as an introductory word; as,

1. *There* were no little children present.
2. *There* were no little children there.

In the second of these sentences, which *there* is an adverb? How do you know? You will learn more about the use of *there* as an introductory word in Lesson 71.

Do not confuse *there's* with the possessive pronoun *theirs*. Are these sentences correct?

There's nothing wrong. Theirs are wrong.

What does each sentence mean? Notice carefully the difference in the spelling of the adverb and the possessive pronoun.

The adverbs *how*, *when*, *where*, and *why* are often used to introduce questions; as,

1. Where are you going?
2. When do you expect to return?
3. How did you get here?
4. Why did you come?

When the adverbs *how*, *when*, *where*, and *why* are used in this way they are called **interrogative adverbs**.

Exercises. A. Find the adverbs in the following sentences. Why is each an adverb? Which are interrogative adverbs?

1. I came in very quickly.
2. Where did you put my cap?
3. How shall I get it again?
4. I certainly think so.
5. He has just gone out for his daily walk.
6. John is a very good student of grammar.
7. He came here unexpectedly.
8. He went away very soon.
9. They flocked together like birds.
10. He stood there, so that I could easily see him.
11. My brother is away on a vacation.
12. The man stopped quickly and turned suddenly around.
13. When is school going to be dismissed?
14. Why shall we have a holiday on Monday?
15. He comes here continually without our consent.

16. It rains incessantly here.
17. He is always away when I come.
18. I will go immediately to find him.
19. He seldom stops here.
20. I rarely see him without a very large umbrella.
21. The interest is paid annually.
22. He is remarkably clever, but none too honest.

B. Read the following sentences. Write them correctly and state the reason to yourself as follows:

I shall use *well* in the first sentence because *well* is an adverb modifying the verb *sings*.

1. She sings (good, well).
2. He came in (quiet, quietly).
3. His father spoke (gentle, gently) to him.
4. (Sure, Surely) I will go.
5. Mother speaks (rapid, rapidly).
6. I have very (near, nearly) finished my lesson.
7. That will do (nice, nicely).
8. You drew that very (bad, badly).
9. I was (bad, badly) frightened.
10. Get that for me (quick, quickly).
11. The dog was growling (fierce, fiercely).
12. He answered me (cross, crossly).
13. She looked at us (sad, sadly).
14. The boy questioned us (hopeful, hopefully).
15. She spoke (soft, softly).

46. Review

The schoolhouse, a low building of one room, was rudely constructed of logs; the windows were partly glazed, and partly patched with leaves of old copybooks. The building was most ingeniously secured at vacant hours by a withe twisted in the

handle of the door, and by stakes set against the window shutters; so that, though a thief might get in with perfect ease, he would probably find some embarrassment in getting out—an idea most probably borrowed by the architect, Yost Van Houten, from the mystery of an eel-pot. The schoolhouse stood in a rather lonely but pleasant location, close by a running brook and just at the foot of a wooded hill at one end of which a formidable birch tree grew.

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Exercises. *A.* Write all the nouns in this selection in a column; after each noun write *common* or *proper* and *singular* or *plural*.

B. Classify the nouns in this selection in this way in class. Work for speed.

Schoolhouse is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender.

C. Classify orally the nouns and the pronouns in the following sentences, telling the kind, person, number, and gender of each.

1. President Wilson called out the United States troops.
2. It was she whom you saw reading a magazine in a chair by the window.
3. Julius Cæsar conquered Gaul.
4. Cortez explored Mexico.
5. They quickly took their seats, and the meeting began.
6. Hannibal was the great Carthaginian leader.
7. Marie and I sent the messenger to her with a package.
8. The storm frightened Alice and me.
9. Her unkind words hurt us.
10. My brother was on the crew which won the race.

D. Point out the possessive pronouns and the possessive adjectives in the following sentences. Tell what word each possessive adjective modifies.

1. This camera is yours, but that one is mine.
2. Are you going to have your picture taken?
3. We had ours taken yesterday.
4. His automobile ran into theirs.
5. These skates are hers. His were left at home.
6. My sister left her gloves at their house.
7. The photograph arrived in poor condition. Its edges had been bent in the mail.

47. A Book Report

How many of the books in the following list have you read?

Alcott, Louisa M.	Little Women
Aldrich, Thomas Bailey	The Story of a Bad Boy
Andrews, Mary Raymond Shipman	The Perfect Tribute
Austin, J. G.	Betty Alden
Bennett, John	Master Skylark
Bishop, Joseph Bucklin	Theodore Roosevelt's Letters to His Children
Clemens, Samuel L. (Mark Twain)	Huckleberry Finn
Connor, Ralph	Glengarry School Days
Dana, Richard Henry	Two Years before the Mast
Dodge, Mary Mapes	Hans Brinker
Duncan, Norman	The Adventures of Billy Topsail
Eggleston, Edward	The Hoosier School Boy
Franklin, Benjamin	Autobiography
Hale, Edward Everett	The Man without a Country

Harris, Joel Chandler	Uncle Remus
Jackson, Helen Hunt	Ramona
Keller, Helen	The Story of My Life
Kipling, Rudyard	Just So Stories
Lamb, Charles and Mary	Tales from Shakespeare
Lanier, Sidney	The Boy's King Arthur
Page, Thomas Nelson	Two Little Confederates
Parkman, Francis	The Oregon Trail
Stevenson, Robert Louis	Treasure Island
Stevenson, Robert Louis	Kidnapped
Tarkington, Booth	Penrod
Warner, Charles Dudley	Being a Boy
Wiggin, Kate Douglas	Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm

Exercises. A. Get from the library one of these books that you have not read. As you read the book notice the following points:

1. Is the beginning interesting? If so, how does the author secure the interest?
2. Are the descriptions vivid? Which ones are especially good?
3. Are the characters lifelike? Which one or ones interest you most? Why?
4. Are the conversations natural?
5. Is there a climax or a surprise near the end? What is it?
6. What events lead to the climax?
7. Why do you or do you not like the book?
8. How does the book compare in interest with other books that you have read?

Three weeks from today your teacher will ask you to give a three-minute talk on the book which you have read. Of course you will not be able to go into detail, but you will have time to tell the class briefly what the book is

about, whether or not you liked it, and why. Perhaps you can read short passages from the book to illustrate your points. If you choose a novel, the outline of your oral report may be as follows :

1. Title of book, and author
2. Setting of story
3. Chief characters
4. The most interesting event in the story
5. Your opinion of the book, and the reason for your opinion

B. Read an article in one of the following magazines, and report on it one week from today. In your report give a brief outline of what you have read. Tell what you consider the most interesting thought in the article. Give your opinion of the article. Your teacher may suggest other magazines.

1. Everygirl's Magazine (Magazine of the Camp Fire Girls)
2. Boys' Life (The Boy Scouts' Magazine)
3. Popular Mechanics Magazine
4. The National Geographic Magazine
5. Nature Magazine
6. St. Nicholas Magazine
7. The Youth's Companion
8. The American Boy
9. The American Girl

48. Contractions

Contractions are shortened forms of words used frequently in conversation and sometimes in informal writing.

Can't is a contraction of *cannot*. *Don't* is a contraction of *do not*. Never omit the apostrophe. For what two letters does it stand in *can't*? for what letter in *don't*?

In contractions the apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of a letter or letters.

Exercises. A. From what expressions have the following contractions been formed? Write the contractions in a column and opposite each contraction write the expression from which it is formed.

wasn't	I've	they'll	we'll	it's
isn't	'tis	wouldn't	o'clock	I'm
couldn't	let's	we're	doesn't	you're

B. What contractions may be used for the following words? Write the contractions in sentences.

I had	does not	there will	it is
we will	do not	they have	it will
should not	cannot	will not	there is

49. Double Negatives

The sentence "The horse did run away" states a fact. If, however, we wish to deny the truth of this statement we introduce the word *not* into the sentence. It then reads "The horse did not run away." Notice the italicized words in the sentences below.

1. There were *no* men in the camp.
2. *Didn't* he know that the river was deep?
3. *Nothing* in the great fair pleased him.
4. "There is *none* in my box," said Faith.
5. I have *scarcely* any paint.
6. It can *hardly* be true.

Such words as *not*, *no*, *nothing*, *none*, *never*, *nowhere*, and *neither* are called negatives. *Nothing* means "not anything." *None* means "not any," or "not one." *Never* means "not

ever." *Nowhere* means "not anywhere." *Neither* means "not either." The words *scarcely* and *hardly*, and contractions consisting of verbs and the word *not*, such as *wasn't*, *didn't*, and *hasn't*, are also negative in meaning.

One negative in a sentence expresses a negative meaning. But if we use two negatives, one nullifies the other and the negative meaning is destroyed. For instance, the sentence "He isn't no coward," expanded, is "He is not no coward," and means "He *is* a coward." But the one who spoke this sentence meant that the person spoken of was not a coward. He should therefore have used only one negative and said, "He isn't a coward," "He is not a coward," or "He is no coward." When we wish to express a negative meaning we must be careful to use only one negative in a sentence. Since *hardly* and *scarcely* contain negative ideas, we should also be careful never to use them with other negatives. We say, "I have scarcely any paint," not "I haven't scarcely any paint."

Do not use a double negative.

Exercises. A. Write correct sentences using:

nobody	don't	never	not
none	nothing	isn't	hasn't
nowhere	didn't	doesn't	hardly
couldn't	wasn't	no	scarcely

B. Write the following sentences, choosing the word in each pair of parentheses which will make the sentence correct. Write sentences 1, 7, and 11 in two ways, either of which is correct.

1. I (have, haven't) seen (nobody, anybody).
2. She said she (hadn't, had) hardly enough money to go.

3. I don't want to go (nowhere, anywhere) tonight.
4. She (is, isn't) scarcely beautiful.
5. They don't want to do (anything, nothing) in hot weather.
6. Why wouldn't you go (nowhere, anywhere) last Monday?
7. (Is, isn't) (anybody, nobody) going?
8. Nothing (never, ever) matters anyway.
9. She (could, couldn't) scarcely walk.
10. There (isn't, is) hardly enough meat for dinner.
11. She says there (isn't, is) (anybody, nobody) at home.
12. He (couldn't, could) scarcely believe his eyes.
13. Don't you know (nothing, anything?)
14. I couldn't go (anywhere, nowhere) in this hat.
15. None of these nuts are (no, any) good.

50. The Paragraph

Read the following paragraph. Which sentence tells what the paragraph is about? Notice that the other sentences tell why every family needs a simple canning outfit. What reasons do they give?

1. Every family that has a garden should have a simple canning outfit to go with it. There is always a surplus of many crops, which, if they are not canned, are wasted and lost. Food is too important, too costly, to allow a bit of it to go to waste. When the simple methods of canning are carefully followed, the vegetables and fruits which are put up at home are superior to those offered in the stores. One knows just what goes into the cans and has the great satisfaction of making the garden last the year round.¹

What is the main thought in the following paragraph? Read the sentence which states it. What outfit is needed for canning in the home? Why is it not expensive? What

¹ From *Garden Steps* by Ernest Cobb.

reasons are given to prove that tin cans are too expensive for home use and what reasons prove that glass jars are preferable?

2. The outfit needed for successful canning is not expensive, and most of the necessaries are found in every household. The use of tin cans is not practicable in the home. Tin cans cost a good deal and may be used once only. They require a special soldering kit, and it takes skill to solder the covers properly. Glass jars cost a little more than tins, but they are clean and sweet and may be used year after year. The cold pack method of preserving vegetables in jars is so simple and so sure of success, that this is recommended for all the products of the home or school garden.¹

The sentence which expresses the main thought of a paragraph is called the **topic sentence**. Usually it is the first sentence of the paragraph. Occasionally the topic sentence is stated within the paragraph or at the end, and once in a while it is not even expressed. When the topic sentence is not expressed, you can easily form a sentence of your own which will state briefly the subject of a good paragraph. Every other sentence in the paragraph should add to or explain the topic sentence. Never forget that whenever you are ready to discuss a new topic you should begin a new paragraph.

You already know certain facts about paragraphs. In today's lesson you have observed that a paragraph is composed of a group of related thoughts whose purpose is to explain a single idea usually expressed in a topic sentence.

A paragraph is a group of sentences related to one idea or topic.

¹ From *Garden Steps* by Ernest Cobb.

Exercises. A. Find the topic sentence in each of the following paragraphs and tell how the other sentences are related to it:

1. The power of water is very great. As we watch the water in a small stream trickling over the pebbles, we can hardly appreciate the vast power that results when the stream is dammed and a considerable head of water is maintained. The force of the waves and of the flood waters often does immense damage to shipping, to crops, and to the works of man which have been built in their paths.¹

2. Ideal soil is the result of patient toil. Market gardeners take the most minute pains in preparing the ground for their crops, and the beginner should take their practice for his own. The author once saw men in France digging up the soil from the garden into large carts. These men were moving to a new place, and, by the French law, they had a right to carry with them the top soil of their little farm. It represented years of patient improvement. Every stone was picked out; the rich, dark earth was soft and fine, in perfect condition. They could not afford to leave it behind.²

B. Write a topic sentence for each of the following paragraphs:

I. _____
Of these three necessities, food is by far the most important. The ordinary family plans to spend a large part of the daily wages for food. If the times are bad, we can live in smaller houses and be very comfortable. We can wear the same clothes twice as long as we expected to, and still not suffer from the cold. But with food it is very different. We must constantly provide ourselves with a nourishing diet, or our strength fails, health gives way, and great suffering is the final result. For a

¹From *General Science* by Charles Lake.

²From *Garden Steps* by Ernest Cobb.

useful and happy existence, nourishing food is of the first importance.¹

2.

In digging out old wells, roots of trees have frequently been found, which have come more than a hundred feet to feed in the moist earth near the well. The tiny roots of the garden plants do the same thing on a smaller scale. They go toward the nearest water, wherever that may be. Their natural tendency is to go down into the earth, to seek water in the moist soil below them.¹

C. Write a paragraph of at least ten sentences developing one of the following topic sentences:

1. There are three tools that are especially useful in gardening.
2. I find it a saving of time to keep my desk neat.
3. I do not enjoy being left at home alone.
4. The game of baseball is one of the best games for boys.
5. The current magazines for boys and girls contain much interesting information as well as many good stories.
6. One of the subjects I enjoy most is history.
7. It does not pay to be extravagant.
8. There are times when one has many mishaps in preparing for school.

51. Short Talks

Prepare short talks on two of these subjects. Be sure that each speech begins with a topic sentence.

1. What Good Citizenship Means
2. What Loyalty Means
3. A Good Example of Fair Play

¹From *Garden Steps* by Ernest Cobb.

4. Why I Think All Boys and Girls Should Continue Their Education beyond Grammar School
5. Ways in Which Boys Can Show Courtesy to Others
6. Ways in Which Girls Can Show Courtesy to Others
7. Courtesy to Guests
8. Ways of Being Helpful at Home
9. True Hospitality

52. Prepositions and Their Objects

What is a preposition? Find the prepositions in the following sentences, and point out the words between which each preposition shows a relation:

1. He went to town.
2. The dog plays with me.
3. We came after them.
4. The man in the car waved to us.

You have learned that a preposition is usually placed before a noun or a pronoun. Show that this is true of each of the prepositions in the sentences above. The noun or pronoun which usually follows a preposition is called the **object** of the preposition. In these sentences *town*, *me*, *them*, *car*, and *us* are all objects of prepositions.

The personal pronouns which may be used as objects of prepositions are *me*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *us*, *you*, *them*. Point out the objects of the prepositions in the following sentences. Tell in each case whether the object of the preposition is a noun or a pronoun.

1. The dog ran into his kennel.
2. The captain of our team was injured during the last game.
3. They called to us.

4. They were sitting on the porch.
5. Shall you go with them?

Exercise. Read the following sentences and find the prepositions. Describe each in this way:

In is a preposition because it shows a relation between the noun *manger* and the noun *dog*. The noun *manger* is the object of the preposition *in*.

Some of these sentences contain more than one preposition. Be careful to find them all.

1. The dog in the manger snapped at the man.
2. Now the man had been very good to the dog.
3. He had taken him into his home.
4. He had given him bones from his table.
5. The children had played with him in the yard.
6. He had a warm bed in a manger beside the old horse.
7. Even the good wife had grown fond of him.
8. But under his pretence of friendliness, the dog nursed a grudge against the man.
9. He planned to get even with him some day.
10. So, in the winter, the man's little home burned.
11. He took his family to the stable for the night.
12. They were going to sleep in the mangers, covered with straw.
13. Finally the man got his family settled in the warm straw.
14. There was only one manger left for him.
15. This the ungrateful dog refused to share with him.

53. Phrases

What two parts of speech have you studied that may be used as modifiers? What parts of speech may an

adjective modify? an adverb? What questions do adverbs answer?

Now notice these sentences:

1. They are wealthy people.
2. They are people of wealth.
3. Finally he succeeded.
4. After many attempts he succeeded.

In the first sentence what word modifies *people*? What part of speech is this modifier? In the second sentence what two words modify *people* just as *wealthy* does in the first sentence?

What part of speech is *finally*? What does it modify? What question does *finally* answer? Point out the words in the fourth sentence which modify the verb *succeeded* by answering the question *when*.

Such groups of words as *of wealth* and *after many attempts* are called **phrases**.

A phrase is a group of related words, without a subject and a predicate, that does the work of a single part of speech.

The phrase *of wealth* is used as an adjective, to modify the noun *people*. Such a phrase is called an **adjectival phrase**. A phrase such as *after many attempts*, which is used as an adverb to modify the verb *succeeded*, is called an **adverbial phrase**.

An adjectival phrase is a phrase that modifies a noun or a pronoun.

An adverbial phrase is a phrase that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

What part of speech are *of* and *after* in the sentences above? Because they are introduced by prepositions,

phrases consisting of a preposition, its object, and the modifiers of the object, are sometimes called **prepositional phrases**.

Exercises. *A.* Point out the phrases in the following sentences. Tell what part of speech each phrase modifies, and what kind of phrase it is. What question does each of the adverbial phrases answer?

1. I sprang to the stirrup.
2. At the top of the hill was a cabin made of logs.
3. The King of the Golden River was cruel.
4. The Knights of the Silver Arrow fought with their swords.
5. We passed through the woods before we reached the site of our camp.
6. On Wednesday night we had the most severe thunderstorm of the season.
7. He is a violin player of very great fame.
8. We turned the canoe toward shore.
9. I crept along in the darkness.
10. She came with me.

B. Using the following model, classify the phrases, and the words in each phrase, in the sentences below.

<i>Phrase</i>	<i>Preposi- tion</i>	<i>Pro- noun</i>	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Adjec- tive</i>	<i>Word Modified by Phrase</i>	<i>Kind of Phrase</i>
against the window	against		window	the	threw	adverbial

1. Jack threw the snow against the window.
2. She sent them to the store.

3. The fur of the beaver is warm.
4. In the frosty season the cottage windows blazed with light.
5. In the early morning the birds twittered in the trees along the banks of the quiet stream.
6. The old king sat upon his throne.
7. We went up the beach and through the narrow paved streets to the little gray church on the windy hill.
8. We gazed through the small leaded panes.
9. She sits at her wheel in the quiet room, and spins.
10. She sits at the window and looks at the boats in the harbor.
11. My canary sings for me every morning.
12. He brought a stranger with him.

54. The Use of Phrases

Phrases may often be substituted for words, and words for phrases, as in the following sentences:

1. We live in the state *of California*.
We are *Californians*.
2. The fur *of the beaver* is warm.
The *beaver's* fur is warm.
3. He spoke *with vigor*.
He spoke *vigorously*.
4. Ornaments *of gold and silver* were found in the tomb.
Gold and silver ornaments were found in the tomb.

The choice between single words and phrases usually depends upon the sound. Ability to use both word and phrase modifiers lends variety to one's writing and speaking.

Variety, and vividness as well, are also obtained by changing the position of the phrases in the sentence. Notice the position of the phrases in the following sentences. Which sentence in each group do you prefer? Why?

1. Edwin stole away to the common.
Away to the common stole Edwin.
2. Rodney ran home through the cold night.
Through the cold night Rodney ran home.
3. No one said anything to the miller openly.
To the miller no one said anything openly.
4. The contending archers took their station in turn.
The contending archers in turn took their station.
In turn the contending archers took their station.
5. Lay it on the table, Mrs. Smith.
On the table lay it, Mrs. Smith.
6. The old lady strode into the kitchen.
Into the kitchen strode the old lady.

It is important to place a phrase in such a position in the sentence that it will be quite clear what word it modifies. If you are speaking of a blue-eyed man, who called a little boy, you should say, "The man with blue eyes called the little boy." In this sentence the phrase *with blue eyes* modifies *man*. If you say, "The man called the little boy with blue eyes," the phrase modifies *boy* and the sentence means that the little boy has blue eyes.

Phrases are also used to give vividness by adding details. Try to improve your writing and your conversation by using such phrases. Notice the use of phrases in stories that you are reading.

Exercise. Add interesting details to the following sentences, being careful to place them in such a way that the meaning is clear. The details need not all be expressed in phrases. Add details about appearance and about when, where, and how the action occurred.

1. The children crept into the house.
2. The cat watched the rat hole.

3. Twenty men rode down the hill.
4. Cries could be heard.
5. The man held his breath.
6. Two small heads appeared.
7. She was a widow.
8. On a raised platform sat the chief.
9. James and Patsy looked on.
10. The little boy had been forbidden to cross the river.

55. Simple Sentences

How may sentences be classified according to their use? Sentences may also be classified according to form.

1. Helen went home.
2. Mary went home.
3. I went home.

What is the subject of the first sentence? What is the predicate verb? Point out the subject and the predicate verb of each of the other sentences. Such sentences as these, which contain only one subject and one predicate, are called **simple sentences**.

Now notice the following sentences:

1. Helen and Mary went home.
2. Helen, Mary, and I went home.

In the first of these sentences, the words *Helen* and *Mary* are taken together as one subject. What is the word which joins them? What is it called? When two or more words are joined by a conjunction to make a subject, the subject is said to be **compound**. *Helen and Mary* is the compound subject of the first sentence. Since the two words are used together as one subject, the sentence is said to have but

one subject and one predicate, and is therefore a simple sentence. What is the compound subject of the second sentence? How many words does it contain? Subjects which are not compound are said to be *simple subjects*.

Which of the following sentences have compound subjects? What are they? Which have simple subjects? What are they? What is the difference between a simple subject and a compound subject?

1. I hurt my finger.
2. Mary and John are going to the circus.
3. The frisky squirrel ran out on a branch.
4. Ruth, May, and I blew soap bubbles yesterday.

Write five sentences containing compound subjects.

Just as two or more words may be used as the compound subject of one predicate verb, so two or more assertions may be made about a single subject; as,

1. The fox jumped and ran.
2. We worked, rested, and then worked again.

What is the subject of the first sentence? *Jumped and ran* is the **compound predicate**. What is the compound predicate of the second sentence? What is the subject? A predicate which is not compound is called a *simple predicate*. Since the verbs in each of these sentences are used as single verbs, each sentence is said to contain but one subject and one predicate. These sentences are therefore simple sentences.

Which of the following sentences have simple predicates? Which have compound predicates?

1. The dog wagged his tail.
2. The guests were talking and laughing.

3. We are three soldiers brave.
4. In Rome Cæsar made laws and enforced them.

Write five sentences containing compound predicates. Sometimes both the subject and the predicate of simple sentences are compound, as:

1. Helen and Mary worked and then rested.
2. Helen and Mary and I worked, rested, and then worked again.

Point out the compound subjects and predicates in the sentences above. How many words does each contain? Since, in each of these sentences, the words of the subject are used together as a single subject, and the verbs of the predicate are used as a single verb, the sentences are simple sentences.

A simple sentence is a sentence that contains but one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound.

Write five simple sentences containing compound subjects and compound predicates.

Which of the following sentences have simple subjects? simple predicates? compound subjects? compound predicates? How do you know that these are simple sentences? Classify them also as declarative or interrogative and exclamatory or non-exclamatory.

1. Go home!
2. Josephine and I were up before daylight.
3. Some one is shouting!
4. He cannot read or write English.
5. Do you like *Treasure Island*?
6. Sara and Susan play and sing.

Exercise. Point out the subject and the predicate of each of the following sentences. Which sentences have compound subjects? Which have compound predicates? How do you know that these are simple sentences? Classify them also as declarative or interrogative, exclamatory or non-exclamatory.

1. Jane plays and sings very well.
2. Sunshine and rain make the flowers grow.
3. The cottage windows blazed with light.
4. Margaret and her big brother have gone to the circus.
5. May I go too?
6. You will read and enjoy "The Ancient Mariner," some day.
7. My sister and I have a copy of this poem.
8. When did Napoleon and his great army cross the Alps?
9. Lewis and Clark explored the West.
10. The children played and laughed in Never-Never Land.
11. Peter Pan and Wendy played the hardest.
12. The tall treetops swayed in the wind.
13. Are they not reading and sewing in the front room?
14. Priscilla and John Alden were Pilgrims.
15. The lake reddens in the sunset glow.
16. Don't talk so loud!

56. Compound Sentences

1. The bell rang.
2. The school was not dismissed.
3. The bell rang, but the school was not dismissed.

What is the subject of the first sentence? What is the predicate? Name the subject and the predicate of the second sentence. What kind of sentences are these?

How many subjects and predicates does the third sentence

contain? This sentence consists of two statements, either of which, taken alone, expresses a complete thought. What are these two statements? What word joins them? What part of speech is it? These two statements, *The bell rang* and *the school was not dismissed*, are called **clauses**. The first clause has a subject substantive, *bell*, and a predicate verb, *rang*. What is the subject substantive of the second clause? What is the predicate verb? the complete subject? the complete predicate?

A clause is a group of words which contains a subject and a predicate, and is used as a part of a sentence.

Each one of the clauses in sentence 3 expresses a complete thought and may be used independently of the other. Such clauses are called **independent** or **principal clauses**.

A principal clause is a clause which expresses a complete thought.

Since the two clauses in sentence 3 are of equal rank, they are said to be **coördinate**.

Sentences containing two or more principal clauses are called **compound sentences**. "I opened the door, and there stood grandmother" is a compound sentence, because it has two principal clauses.

A compound sentence is a sentence containing two or more principal clauses.

What kind of sentence is the following? Point out the two clauses.

John likes to skate, but Mary prefers to coast.

What part of speech joins the two principal clauses in this sentence? The conjunctions most commonly used to connect coördinate clauses are *and*, *but*, and *or*. Unless the clauses are very short, as in the sentence "Edith played

and Ruth sang," a comma is usually placed before the conjunction connecting the principal clauses of a compound sentence. When the conjunction is not expressed, or when the clauses themselves contain commas, they are usually separated by a semicolon; as,

Lincoln was a poor man; Washington, a rich man.

The boys, hoping for better success, rowed to a different spot; but still they caught no fish.

When the conjunction is expressed, the clauses of a compound sentence are usually separated by a comma. When the conjunction is not expressed, or when the clauses contain commas, separate the clauses by a semicolon.

Exercises. A. Which of the following sentences are simple, and which are compound? How do you know? Copy them, underlining the subject substantive and the predicate verb of each sentence and of each clause.

1. The morning air is clear, and an invigorating breeze is blowing from the east.
2. Flies and mosquitoes spread much disease.
3. Joseph gathered the nuts and cracked them.
4. Stevenson read and wrote sea-faring stories.
5. Wheat grows in cool countries, but olives thrive in warm ones.
6. Business letters and friendly letters are not written in the same style.
7. Birds and bees interested John Burroughs.
8. Airplanes still excite our wonder, but some day people will take them as a matter of course.
9. In school we often read and act plays.

B. Copy the following sentences, separating the coördinate clauses as follows:

I like to go to school | but | I am always glad to have a holiday.

1. Bob played a joke on me once, and now I suspect him often.
2. General Petain led the French forces, and General Pershing commanded the Americans.
3. Jane Addams has helped men and women to live good lives, and consequently people love her.
4. It was my birthday, but I did not get a box of candy.
5. Helen Keller is blind, yet she is very happy.

C. Classify orally and separate into their coördinate clauses the sentences in Exercise B, using the following form:

Elmer came but he did not stay long, is a compound, declarative sentence, consisting of the coördinate clauses, *Elmer came* and *he did not stay long*, connected by the conjunction *but*.

D. Write ten compound sentences, underlining each subject substantive once, and each predicate verb twice. Be careful to punctuate these sentences correctly.

57. Complex Sentences

1. Vacation will soon begin, and we shall go to the seashore.
2. When vacation begins we shall go to the seashore.

What kind of sentence is the first of these? What kind of clauses does it contain? What is the conjunction connecting them?

The second sentence contains how many subjects? How many predicates? What are they? Since the group of words *When vacation begins* contains a subject and a predicate, it must be a clause. But when taken alone it

does not express a complete thought. What words complete the meaning of this clause? Such clauses as *When vacation begins*, which are dependent upon principal clauses for the completion of their meaning, are called **subordinate clauses**.

A subordinate clause is a clause which does not express a complete thought.

Point out the subordinate clauses in the following sentences. How do you know that each is a subordinate clause?

1. What are you going to do when you reach home?
2. If the court is not already in use, we may play tennis.
3. After the rain is over, we shall go for a walk.

Sentences which contain one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses are called **complex sentences**.

A complex sentence is a sentence that consists of one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

What kind of sentences are the following? Point out the principal and the subordinate clause in each. In which sentences is there a mark of punctuation between the clauses?

1. He went to the library after school was over.
2. When the weather gets colder, we can go skating.
3. If you and your sister are planning to go away before that time, we shall set an earlier date for the meeting.

Place a comma after a long subordinate clause when the subordinate clause precedes the principal clause.

Exercises. A. Separate each of these complex sentences into its clauses, telling which is the principal clause and which the subordinate clause.

1. Just as I reached the station, the train pulled out.
2. We played till we were tired.

3. I shall be glad when summer comes.
4. When war was declared, there was much excitement.
5. As I ran out of the room, I tore my dress.
6. Though he had worked faithfully all his life, the poor man had little money.
7. Napoleon was not an ideal man because he was very selfish.
8. Since the Chinese like bright colors, even the men wear pink and gold costumes.
9. Although no nation was entirely satisfied with the treaty, all welcomed peace.
10. If the strike continues, there will be much suffering.

B. Write ten complex sentences, five with the principal clause standing first, and five with the subordinate clause standing first. Underline each subject substantive once, and each predicate verb twice. Be careful to punctuate these sentences correctly.

58. Adjectival and Adverbial Clauses

Adjectival Clauses.

1. Eskimos live in *snow* houses.
2. Eskimos live in houses *of snow*.
3. Eskimos live in houses *that are made of snow*.

What is the modifier of *houses* in sentence 1? in sentence 2? in sentence 3? You see from these sentences that a subordinate clause, as well as a word or a phrase, may be a modifier. In what way does a phrase differ from a clause?

What part of speech is *snow* in the first sentence? What kind of phrase is *of snow*? What word does the clause *that are made of snow* modify? Since it modifies a noun, we call

it an **adjectival clause**. Adjectival clauses are always subordinate clauses and modify nouns or pronouns.

An adjectival clause is a subordinate clause used like an adjective.

Adjectival clauses are usually introduced by the pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that*.

Point out the adjectival clauses in the following sentences. What word introduces each? What word does each clause modify?

1. The man who sent us the candy is a friend of my father's.
2. Where is the big spoon which you were using?
3. The flowers that were on the table have wilted.
4. He is the man who put out the fire.
5. The dog that bit the child has been caught.
6. Man is the only animal that can talk rationally.
7. I see a bird that has a red breast.
8. The girl who went away to school has returned.
9. An adjective is a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun.
10. A clause which modifies a noun is called an adjectival clause.
11. We make a great many errors which might be avoided.
12. A sentence which asks a question ends with a question mark.

Adverbial Clauses. Subordinate clauses may also be used as adverbial modifiers. What is an adverb? What questions do adverbs answer? In the following sentences, what words or groups of words answer the question *when*?

1. He *always* comes.
2. He comes *at all times*.
3. He comes *whenever I send for him*.

The verb *comes*, in these sentences, is modified by an adverb, an adverbial phrase, and a clause. Since *whenever*

I send for him is a clause modifying a verb, it is called an adverbial clause.

An adverbial clause is a subordinate clause used like an adverb.

An adverbial clause usually answers the question *how, when, where, or to what extent*. Adverbial clauses may be introduced by such conjunctions as:

although	because	until
as	if	till
as if	since	while

and by the following adverbs which are sometimes used as conjunctions:

after	how	where
before	when	why

Point out the adverbial clauses in the following sentences and tell what each modifies. What question does each adverbial clause answer? What word introduces each?

1. We shall go to the theatre after we have had dinner.
2. Some people prefer to drive where the roads are better.
3. She was looking about as if she expected some one.
4. We shall take a lantern with us because the road will be very dark.
5. We pulled the boat down to the shore when we were ready.
6. The boy ran home just as the whistle blew.
7. I shall have to know several facts before I can answer your question.
8. We must call on John before he goes on his vacation.
9. We believed in Santa Claus when we were children.
10. When he walked away his dog followed him.

11. As the fisherman walked slowly along the beach, he saw the footprints of a man.
12. The accident occurred before we started for home.

Exercises. A. Point out the principal and the subordinate clauses in the following sentences. Tell how each subordinate clause is used and what kind of subordinate clause it is. Point out the introducing word in each case.

1. The boys who passed the swimming test were allowed the use of boats.
2. The boy to whom you refer has left school.
3. The old fisherman mended the net while we built the fire.
4. Some of the scouts cut pine boughs while others went off in search of supplies.
5. The canoe which you used last night is half full of water.
6. You must have struck a rock when you pulled the canoe up on the shore.
7. You cannot handle a canoe as you would handle a rowboat.
8. When we had finished breakfast, we planned our trip.
9. When you are old enough, you may obtain a license to drive an automobile.
10. When the horses had been fed, the boys continued their journey.
11. This was the first entertainment that the girls in our school had given.
12. On the way home we met a girl who knew your sister.
13. You may choose any song that you wish.
14. Telephone me when you reach home.
15. The tree which stood in the corner of the garden was the favorite haunt of the children.
16. Please return by the close of school all books which you have borrowed from my desk.

B. Write five sentences containing adjectival clauses and five sentences containing adverbial clauses. Underline each subject substantive once and each predicate verb twice.

59. Summary—Modifiers

What part of speech modifies nouns and pronouns? What part of speech modifies verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs? What, therefore, are the two parts of speech which are used as modifiers?

A little stray dog, that whined pitifully, came to our house on Christmas Day.

What part of speech do *little* and *stray* modify? *our*? What part of speech are *little*, *stray*, and *our*? What part of speech does *pitifully* modify? What part of speech is *pitifully*?

What phrases do you find in this sentence? How is each used? What clause is used as a modifier? What word does it modify? What kind of clause is it? In what way does a clause differ from a phrase?

Since *stray*, *lonely*, *to our house*, *that whined pitifully*, etc. all add to the meaning of other words, they are all **modifiers**. Some of these modifiers are single words, others are phrases, and one is a clause.

A modifier is a word, a phrase, or a clause used to limit or qualify the meaning of some other word or group of words.

Exercises. A. Point out the modifiers in the following sentences and tell how each is used.

1. The brave dog sprang into the deep water.
2. At last he reached the exhausted swimmer.

3. There was great rejoicing when both the dog and the man whom he had assisted safely reached the shore.
4. At the top of the cataract of the Golden River, two black stones are standing.
5. The strong eagle did not know that the little wren was on his back.
6. Father Marquette lived among the wild Indians.
7. Long ago Daniel Boone made his way through dense, uninhabited woods.
8. There was a group of older men in the camp who were hastily quartering a freshly-killed deer.
9. The leader of the band looked at us sternly.
10. The ferocious appearance of the entire company aroused our fears, and we beat a hasty retreat to our boats.

B. Write twelve sentences. Use adjectival phrases in three; adverbial phrases in three; adjectival clauses in three; and adverbial clauses in three. Use adjectives and adverbs in each of the sentences.

60. Review—Sentences

Exercises. *A.* What is a declarative sentence? an interrogative sentence? an exclamatory sentence? Write four examples of each. What is the complete subject of each of your sentences? the complete predicate? What is the subject substantive? the predicate verb? What part of speech is each of the other words in these sentences? What are the modifiers? How is each used?

B. What is a simple sentence? a compound sentence? a complex sentence? In the following list which sentences are simple, which are compound, and which are complex? How do you know? Which clauses are principal and which are subordinate? How can you tell?

1. As she spoke, the little girl's eyes sparkled.
2. The little fairies danced into my dream.
3. The canaries' nests are difficult to discover, but those of the sparrows are easy to find.
4. If boys and girls would eat more slowly, they would have better health.
5. When winter comes the songbirds fly to the South.
6. We must finish our work before our guests arrive.
7. Although it may be hard, we must speak the truth.
8. If the library is not closed, may I get a book?

C. In the following sentences, which are the subordinate and which the principal clauses? Copy the sentences, punctuating them correctly.

1. If we did not have game laws we would have fewer quail.
2. Since we disobeyed, we deserved no sympathy.
3. While the English were settling along the Atlantic Coast, the French were exploring the Mississippi Valley.
4. Although some Indians were very much devoted to the white man many were treacherous and cruel.
5. Paul Revere spread the alarm through every Middlesex village after he saw the light in the belfry arch.

D. Copy the following sentences, placing one line under the phrases and two lines under the subordinate clauses. How do you know which are phrases and which are clauses? Tell orally how each phrase or clause is used and what kind of phrase or clause it is.

1. In China the natives convey nearly all the merchandise from place to place on their backs or in odd, two-wheeled carts.
2. There are many beautiful cities in Italy that we have not seen.

3. When we break anything belonging to another, we should replace it.
4. There are many peculiar difficulties which the towns of this steep coast must meet.
5. When he turned round for the last time, the little girl was waving her hand to him.
6. The carpenters who have been working on our garage finished it yesterday.
7. We shall be ready before you are.
8. The field where the violets grow is a mile out of town.

E. Point out the prepositions in the sentences in Exercise D, and tell what the object of each preposition is.

F. Write ten complex sentences.

61. Quotations

The teacher said, "Take pens and paper and prepare for a dictation exercise."

"May I get some ink?" asked Martha.

"I think," replied the teacher, "you will have to use your pencil."

When we quote a person's exact words we have a **direct quotation**. What are the direct quotations in the illustrations given? What marks are used to inclose a direct quotation? Why is a comma used after *said*, but a question mark used after *ink*?

Place quotation marks before and after a direct quotation.

NOTE. A direct quotation within a direct quotation should be inclosed in single quotation marks; as,

June answered, "Perhaps he does not know Shakespeare's line 'to thine ownself be true.'"

Separate a direct quotation from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas, unless a question mark or an exclamation mark is needed.

The first word of a direct quotation is usually begun with a capital letter.

When the direct quotation is broken or divided by such words as *he said*, we separate these expressions from the rest of the sentence by commas. The third quotation given above is a broken quotation. Therefore we have commas before and after *replied the teacher*. The first word of the second part of a broken quotation is not begun with a capital letter. Why not? Give an example of a broken quotation.

In writing a conversation the sentence or sentences of each speaker should be written as a separate paragraph.

Now notice how these sentences differ from those at the beginning of the lesson.

The teacher said that we must take pens and paper and prepare for a dictation exercise.

Martha asked whether she might get some ink.

The teacher replied, however, that she would have to use her pencil.

In these sentences we are not quoting another person's exact words, but are telling in our own words what another person has said. When we tell in our own words what another person has said, we have an **indirect quotation**.

Give an example of a direct quotation and change it to an indirect quotation.

Exercises. A. Write the following indirect quotations as direct quotations. Be careful to punctuate them correctly.

1. Lawrence said that he would come.
2. My mother said that I must come home early.
3. When it grew dark father asked Fred to turn on the lights.
4. The little boy exclaimed that he did not want to go home.
5. Jack shouted that he had found an agate.
6. The grocer replied that he had no berries.
7. The little boy answered that he had never heard that story.
8. Vivian cried that she had lost her penny.
9. The man said that we might pick the cherries tomorrow.
10. The little girl asked her mother to let her play with Mary Louise.

B. Write ten sentences containing direct quotations; ten sentences containing indirect quotations.

C. Write an imaginary conversation between two boys or two girls who are returning from a school picnic.

62. The Comma

In these sentences notice the different uses of the comma:

“Yes, you may have some bread,” said the old man as he handed me the loaf.

“Thank you, father,” I replied. “May I pass the night in your house?”

“No, I fear that is impossible, my boy,” responded the old man, “but I will give you a blanket, a place to sleep in the barn, and some breakfast in the morning.”

What is a word of direct address? In the sentences above find illustrations of each of these rules:

If *yes* or *no* is used as part of an answer to a question, it is separated from the rest of the answer by a comma.

Set off words of direct address from the rest of the sentence by commas.

In the third paragraph point out the groups of words which tell what the old man agreed to give the boy. You already know that words in a series are separated by commas. The same rule applies to groups of words in a series as in the third sentence.

Words or groups of words in a series are separated by commas.

What other rules for commas have you learned? Consult your checking list to see whether you have remembered all of them.

Exercise. Write the following sentences, inserting commas in their proper places. After you have done this, read the sentences again and tell yourself the reason for adding each comma. Say to yourself in the first sentence, "I put commas before and after *Elsa* because *Elsa* is a word of direct address."

1. See Elsa what I have found!
2. The little boy called "Come back Rover come back!"
3. Yes I am coming as soon as I finish my breakfast.
4. "He knew my father" said Willard "and he told me about him and his black horse."
5. "Yes I do not deny that" said the miller.
6. "No Tony I will not leave you" replied Richard.
7. The basket contained oranges bananas and grapes.
8. "You're a hero Ben" said Mr. Wilson.
9. When we went camping we took with us a large canvas tent a few necessary cooking dishes food enough to last a week our guns and our cameras.

10. "How dusty you are my boy" said grandmother.
11. "Are you going home Gerald?" asked the teacher.
12. "Yes Miss Brown" replied Gerald.

63. The Hyphen

The hyphen is used, as we have learned, to divide a word at the end of a line when it is impossible to put the whole word on that line. In such cases the word should be divided between syllables, as *Sun-day*, not *Su-nday* or *Sund-ay*. We should avoid dividing a word in such a way that one letter stands alone at the end of one line or at the beginning of the next line; as, *a-gain*, or *alread-y*.

Another way in which the hyphen is used is in joining the parts of compound words. The word *old-fashioned*, for instance, consists of two separate words joined by a hyphen, and is called a compound word. *Twenty-five*, *forget-me-not*, *man-of-war*, *father-in-law*, are formed in the same way. Make a list of ten such words.

Exercises. A. Write each of the compound words in the following list in a sentence:

tax-collector	thirty-five
brother-in-law	mid-air
tear-stained	three-cornered
four-fifths	long-eared

Find in your reader or geography five compound words that require the hyphen.

B. A syllable of a word may consist of a vowel alone, or of a vowel with one or more consonants. The number of syllables into which a word may be divided can usually be determined by its pronunciation. Divide as many as you can of the following words into syllables; as, *hap-pi-*

ness, prep-a-ration. Some of the words, like *through*, cannot be separated into syllables. After you have finished syllabifying the words, consult a dictionary to see how many you have divided correctly.

teacher	handkerchief	fourth	punctuation
through	memorize	picnic	written
divided	together	forest	pronounce
readers	contractions	money	change
compound	though	catch	father
bought	sentences	apostrophe	getting

64. Short Talks

Make a list of several topics which have been of especial interest to the nation, to your state, to your town, or to your particular neighborhood, in the last few weeks. Prepare a short talk on one of them and also upon one of the following subjects, to be given in class:

1. How to Be a Useful Citizen during the Summer
2. How I Take Care of My Room
3. Ways of Saving Money
4. How to Save School Supplies
5. Conserving Our Forests
6. Why I Am Glad That I Live in America
7. The Advantages of a Public School Education

Word Study. Below you will see a list of words which are often mispronounced. Pronounce them correctly.

almond	casualty
athlete	column
athletic	grievous
elm	mischievous
salmon	often

Let two members of the class engage in a conversation in which the first one uses the word *almond* and the other replies by using the same word in another sentence. Proceed similarly with the other words until your teacher is convinced that each member of the class can pronounce each of these words correctly.

65. Friendly Letters

Carrying on a correspondence with a friend is like carrying on a long conversation. When we read a letter, it is like listening to one person until he has said all he wishes to say. In our reply we answer his questions, tell him other things we think he would be interested to hear, and, in our turn, ask questions.

There are a few rules to remember about the form and punctuation of a friendly letter. The friendly letter consists of five parts: the heading, the salutation, the body, the complimentary close, and the signature.

The Heading. The heading of a letter is placed near the upper right-hand corner of the first page. It consists of the address of the writer and the date upon which the letter is written. If the writer lives in the city, he should give his street and number as well as his city and state. If he lives in a village, the name of his street and the name of the village are sufficient. If he lives in the country, the R.F.D. (Rural Free Delivery) number should be added. The address of the writer may occupy one or two lines, according to its length, but the date should always be written upon a separate line. A period should be placed after each abbreviation, and commas should be used to separate the day of the month from the year, and the city from the state; as,

37 Pinckney Street	West Street
Boston, Mass.	Elmwood, Ark.
June 30, 1929	July 23, 1930
Comstock, Neb.	
R.F.D. 2	
September 1, 1928	

Notice that in each of these headings the last two items are indented. Another arrangement, called the "block" form, is also permissible:

37 Pinckney Street	West Street
Boston, Mass.	Elmwood, Ark.
June 30, 1929	July 23, 1930
Comstock, Neb.	
R.F.D. 2	
September 1, 1928	

Write the heading of a letter from a person living in the city; from one living in a village; from one living in the country. Write the heading you would put on one of your own letters.

The Salutation. The salutation indicates the person to whom the letter is written. It is placed on the line below the heading, but at the left-hand side of the page. If the person addressed is merely an acquaintance, one usually uses the salutation *My dear* with the person's title and last name; as, *My dear Mr. Smith*, or *My dear Professor Jones*. If the writer wishes to be a little more friendly, *Dear* instead of *My dear* may be used; as, *Dear Mr. Smith*, or *Dear Professor Jones*. If, however, the letter is to an intimate friend, either *Dear* or *My dear* with the friend's first name or nickname may be used; as, *Dear Clara*, or *Dear Tom*.

Begin *dear* with a capital letter only when it is the first word of the salutation. *My dear Friend* is not usually used. A word in the salutation which is used instead of a person's name should be capitalized; as, *My dear Sister*, *Dear Mother*. The salutation is usually followed by a colon, or sometimes by a comma.

Write the salutation of a letter to your brother; to your father; to a man with whom you are merely acquainted; to a woman with whom you are merely acquainted; to a girl friend; to a boy friend.

The Body of the Letter. The body of a letter is the main part of the letter. It should be paragraphed and written in accordance with the usual rules of writing. The first line should be placed on the line below the salutation and should be indented about an inch.

The Complimentary Close. The complimentary close follows the body of the letter. It should be written below the body of the letter and a little to the right of the center of the page. In friendly letters we may use such forms as the following: *Sincerely yours*, *Very sincerely yours*, *Cordially yours*, *Your friend*, *Your affectionate daughter*, *Affectionately yours*, *Lovingly yours*.

Begin only the *first* word of the complimentary close with a capital letter. Place a comma after the complimentary close.

Write two complimentary closes for letters to friends. Write two which you might use in letters to members of your family.

The Signature. The signature consists of the writer's name, and should be written below and a little to the right of the complimentary close.

An unmarried woman when writing to an acquaintance or to a stranger, places (*Miss*) before her name, in this way :

Very sincerely yours,
(*Miss*) Jessie A. Thompson

When a married woman writes to an acquaintance or to a stranger, she should sign her own first name with her husband's last name. She should, however, indicate below how a letter to her should be addressed; as,

Very sincerely yours,
Jessie A. Barrows
(*Mrs.* George L. Barrows)

The arrangement of the five parts of a friendly letter is shown in the following model.

The heading is well down from the top of the page, and there is a space also between the signature and the bottom of the page. Try to space your letter in such a way that it will look well. A one-page letter should be so placed that the body of the letter occupies the middle of the page.

Does the heading above meet the requirements for a city address? Write a heading for a person living in a village; for one living in the country, with an R.F.D. number.

The Superscription. The name and address of the person to whom you are writing, placed on the envelope, constitute the superscription. If you wish the letter delivered promptly, you must be careful to give the exact address and to write it legibly. A city address should include the person's name, his street and number, city, and state. If your correspondent lives in a village, give his name, street, village,

4964 Ellsworth Street
Chicago, Illinois
July 2, 1923

Dear Mr. Smith,

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Very sincerely yours,
Albert Nelson

and state. If he lives in the country, the R.F.D. number should be given.

If you wish to be sure whether or not the letter reaches its destination, write your own name and address in the upper left-hand corner of the envelope. Then, if the letter

is not delivered to the person to whom it is addressed, it will be returned to you.

The items on the envelope should be arranged as shown below.

FROM ALBERT NELSON 4964 ELLSWORTH ST. CHICAGO, ILL.	STAMP
MR. RALPH T. SMITH 906 NORTON AVENUE TAMPA, FLORIDA	

A little girl, Anna Lee, and her brother, went from their home in the country to the city to attend school. After they had been in school for a few days, Anna wrote the following letter to her parents. Do you think they were pleased with such a short letter?

309 South Spruce Ave.
Minneapolis, Minnesota
Feb. 14, 1923

Dear Mother and Father:

Ralph and I hope that you are as well as we are. We like our school work very much. Don't work too hard.

Lovingly,

Anna Lee.

Of course the father and mother were glad to know their children were well, but they would like to have heard about many things which Anna Lee did not mention. Compare her letter with the following letter written by Edward Everett Hale.¹

Liverpool, England

May 5, 1873

Dear Phil and Bertie,

This seems a very good country for boys, but I have seen no boys I like nearly so well as mine. We went on Saturday to a museum which is like the Natural History rooms only a great deal bigger. We saw there a live chameleon. Now the chameleon is the beast who is one color at one time and another at another. He is not very big, about as long as Phil's hand. When we saw him he was walking up a little bush and he was greenish yellow. He had cabbage to eat. There were splendid peacocks and pheasants. When you go to the Natural History Society, I hope you will look for an Argus pheasant. He is called Argus because there was a king Argus who had one hundred eyes. Now this bird's tail is so full of beautiful spots that look like eyes that he is called the Argus pheasant. Is not that a good name?

Then there were live fishes swimming among grass and stones in glass boxes so that we could see them. There were very, very old mummies from the tombs in Egypt. I laughed very much at some tortoises who were not alive but looked very funny. The people had set them up in the cases with the breasts in front, and they looked as if they were jumping Jim Crow. Arthur will show you how to jump Jim Crow and perhaps will teach you how.

As we approached the land after our voyage we saw a very famous lighthouse, at a place called Holyhead. Holyhead is a

¹From *Life and Letters of Edward Everett Hale*, copyrighted by Little, Brown and Company.

cliff, or rocky mountain, of which the sides run down into the sea. At the very end of the cliff is a little island and on this island is the lighthouse all alone. There is a little bridge which crosses to the island. But when they carry oil and food to the lighthouse, they do not carry them by the bridge, but in boats. And these boats sail into a deep cave under the lighthouse. Then the people look down through a well into the cave, and lower down ropes and pull up the oil and food.

All around the lighthouse are ever so many gulls' nests, and the gulls lay their eggs there, and there the little birds are born. And no one is permitted to land or to meddle with the gulls' eggs at all, so the birds are not frightened. Why do you think they take such care of the gulls? It is because they scream so and make so much noise that in the fog when sailors cannot see the light they can hear the gulls screaming and can keep away from the rocks.

Now we are going to Chester, a very old city where you do not have to carry umbrellas because the sidewalks have covers over them. Is not that a good way?

Mamma sends love and kisses to all.

From your own papa.

From what city was this letter written? The Natural History rooms mentioned in this letter are at the corner of Berkeley and Boylston Streets in Boston, the city where Dr. Hale lived. Where was the museum which he visited? What animals did he see at the museum? How does he describe them? Dr. Hale very wisely mentions things of this sort to make his letter interesting to the boys.

What famous object did Dr. Hale see as the boat approached England? Notice his description of it. What interesting fact does he tell about the gulls? What bit of information does he give about Chester?

Tell why this is a better letter than the one written by Anna Lee.

Exercises. *A.* Write the letter that Anna Lee or Ralph might have written. In the family at home are the father, the mother, an eight-year old sister, and the grandmother. Make the letter sound as if you were talking to the family. Of course they will all be interested to hear what you are doing. But besides telling them about yourself, try to put in news that will be of special interest to each member of the family. For instance, you may have seen something in a store window which would appeal to your little sister; perhaps, too, you have met a lady who used to know your grandmother many years ago; and perhaps you have been to a ball game, a concert, or a play about which your father or your mother would be particularly interested to hear. Do not forget that you will want to hear what is going on at home. Can you think of any questions you might ask your little sister which would make her want to write to you?

B. Write these headings correctly:

5846 Murray Ave Philadelphia Pa March 10 1920

R.F.D. 4 Clayton Mo Jan 17 1922

655 Fifth Ave New York N Y May 24 1923

C. Write in the correct form and punctuate the following:

1. lovingly your son Alfred
2. very respectfully yours A. D. Johnson
3. very affectionately your cousin Jesse
4. sincerely yours L. M. Smith
5. your friend Alice

D. Rule off a space on blank paper to represent a sheet of letter paper. Place within this space, in their proper

positions, the heading, salutation, complimentary close, and signature for a letter from a boy or girl in the country to his cousin, who lives in the city. Rule off a space the size of an envelope and write the superscription for this letter.

E. Suppose that a friend who is living in a foreign land has written you a letter telling you about her home and inclosing pictures of the people, the houses, and the country. Write a reply expressing your thanks for the pictures and telling whether or not you think you would like to live there, and why. Pictures in *The National Geographic Magazine* will give you some suggestions.

F. Write to a friend telling her about a Halloween party, a carnival, or a fair that you have just attended.

66. Formal and Informal Notes

Excuses for Absence and Tardiness. Sometimes we have a message which can be stated in a few lines. A short letter such as this is called a note. Notes are of two kinds—formal and informal. An informal note is like the friendly letter except that it is shorter and that the writer's address and the date may be written either at the beginning or in the lower left-hand corner of the page. It is permissible, also, for the writer to omit his address in an informal note.

The arrangement of an informal note is shown in the excuse for absence and the excuse for tardiness given below.

Dear Miss Barton:

I am very sorry indeed that Beth was unable to attend school yesterday. She had a very sore throat, and the doctor advised me to keep her at home. I shall try to have her study at home the lessons she has missed at school.

Very sincerely yours,

January the fifth

Mary K. Ellis

An excuse for tardiness might read as follows:

Dear Miss Norton:

Arthur's little sister had a severe fall this morning, and I found it necessary to send him for the doctor. I hope you will consider this a satisfactory explanation of his tardiness.

Yours respectfully,

Ellen V. Carson

May the twenty-fourth

(Mrs. George B. Carson)

Any excuse which you present to your teacher should always state the circumstances or the conditions which made an excuse necessary.

Informal Notes. The most frequent occasion for writing notes is in extending and replying to invitations. If you wish to invite a friend to a pageant which is to be given in your town, you may write an informal invitation such as the following:

Dear Helen,

There is to be a pageant next Saturday, in Laurel Park, illustrating the early history of our town. I have heard that the costumes will be beautiful, and I know that there are to be twelve hundred people in the chorus. Would you be interested in seeing it?

If you are, father, mother, and I would enjoy having you go with us. Take the train leaving Boston at 9.30 A.M., and we will meet you at the Newton station. Please say that you will come!

Very cordially yours,

41 Forbes St.

Mary Robertson

September 4, 1921

The reply to an informal invitation should be informal also; as,

Dear Mary,

From what you say, and from what I have seen in the papers about the Newton pageant I am sure it will be very fine indeed, and I shall be delighted to come. Thank you very much for inviting me. I shall look forward to seeing all of you on Saturday.

Very cordially yours,

1536 Boylston St.

Helen C. Brown

September 5, 1921

Formal Notes. Although informal invitations are correct for many occasions, formal invitations are sent for social events such as weddings, receptions, musicals, and private theatricals. Read carefully the following example of a formal invitation.

(Invitation)

Mrs. Alfred Rollins requests the pleasure of Mrs. D. M. Marlow's company at a reception at Fairfax Hall on Wednesday, April the ninth, at three o'clock.

2938 West Main Street

April the first

In what person is this note written? Where are the date and the writer's address placed? Notice that this note has no heading, no salutation, no complimentary close, and no signature. Why?

The reply to a formal invitation should also be formal. That is, it should be written in the third person, with a wording similar to that of the invitation. On the following page are a formal note of acceptance and a formal note of regret.

(Acceptance)

Mrs. D. M. Marlow accepts with pleasure Mrs. Rollin's kind invitation for Wednesday, April the ninth, at three o'clock.

4983 Michigan Avenue
April the third

(Regret)

Mrs. D. M. Marlow regrets that she cannot accept Mrs. Rollin's kind invitation to a reception at Fairfax Hall on Wednesday, April the ninth.

4983 Michigan Avenue
April third, 1922

Exercises. *A.* Write an excuse for a real or an imaginary absence from school.

B. Write an invitation for a formal dinner party given in honor of a distinguished visitor to your town. Write an acceptance from one friend, and a note of regret from another.

C. Write an informal note to a friend, inviting her to a small party at your house. Write the reply.

67. The Simple Tenses

Notice the verbs in the three sentences below.

I *walk* fast.

I *walked* fast yesterday morning.

I *shall walk* fast tomorrow morning.

In the first sentence are we speaking of present time, past time, or future time? What is the time indicated by the verb in the second sentence? by the verb phrase *shall walk*?

In grammar, distinctions of time are indicated by **tense**.

Present time is indicated by the *present tense*, past time by the *past tense*, and future time by the *future tense*. These three tenses of a verb are called the **simple tenses**.

Present Tense. What time is denoted by the verbs in the following sentences? What is the tense of each?

1. The children *work* faithfully.
2. The sun *warms* the earth.
3. She *reads* good books.
4. He *is* here now.

The present tense of a verb is that form of the verb which denotes present time.

Notice carefully the following forms of the verb *walk*:

PRESENT TENSE		
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I walk	We walk
<i>Second Person</i>	You walk	You walk
<i>Third Person</i>	He, she, or it walks	They walk

These forms all express present time. What one form of the verb *walk* differs from all the others in this tense? In what way does it differ?

In the present tense, the third person singular number of the verb always ends in s.

What is the third person singular of the present tense of *see*, *run*, *go*, *come*, and *ring*? Write the third person singular present tense form of each of these verbs in a sentence.

What is the time denoted by each of the verbs in the following sentences? What is the tense of each?

1. The weather is pleasant.
2. The dog loves his master.
3. I believe you.

4. He hears footsteps.
5. They see a stranger at the door.

Write ten sentences containing verbs in the present tense.

Past Tense. What time is indicated by the italicized words in the following sentences?

1. A mother and her little boy *sat* at their cottage door.
2. Columbus *was* a great discoverer.
3. The thirsty child *asked* the boy for a drink.

The past tense of a verb is that form of the verb which denotes past time.

The past tense of the verb *walk* is as follows:

PAST TENSE		
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I walked	We walked
<i>Second Person</i>	You walked	You walked
<i>Third Person</i>	He, she, or it walked	They walked

What is the time denoted by each of the verbs in these sentences? What is the tense of each?

1. The class worked every problem.
2. I heard a new song yesterday.
3. The teacher explained the lesson.
4. The boy ran home.
5. The wind blew the flag pole down.

Write ten sentences containing verbs in the past tense.

Future Tense. What are the verb phrases in the following paragraph? What time do they denote?

Tomorrow we *shall take* our dinner to the woods. I hope the whole class *will be* there. The children *will meet* at the museum where I *shall take* charge of them.

Look again at the italicized words in the paragraph above. What are the auxiliary verbs which are used with principal verbs to form the future tense?

The future tense of a verb is expressed by a verb phrase which denotes future time.

The future tense of the verb *walk* is as follows:

	FUTURE TENSE	
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I shall walk	We shall walk
<i>Second Person</i>	You will walk	You will walk
<i>Third Person</i>	He, she, or it will walk	They will walk

With what person is *shall* used, in the future tense? What auxiliary verb is used with the other two persons? The future tense of the verb *walk* is formed by combining the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will* with the form *walk*. The future tense of all other verbs is similarly formed.

Give the future tense of the verbs *sing*, *help*, and *work*, using the model given in this lesson.

What is the tense of the verb or verb phrase in each of the following sentences?

1. I go down town every Saturday.
2. The lecturer talked for nearly two hours.
3. We shall write you often.
4. He asked me my name.
5. They took the train at Belmont.
6. The conductor will take our tickets presently.

Write ten sentences, underline the verb or verb phrase in each, and tell its tense.

Now notice the italicized verb phrases in these sentences:

I <i>am walking</i> fast.	I <i>do walk</i> fast.
I <i>was walking</i> fast.	I <i>did walk</i> fast.
I <i>shall be walking</i> fast.	

Which of these verb phrases indicate present time? Which, past time? Which, future time? Verb phrases like *am walking*, *was walking*, and *shall be walking*, which consist of some form of the verb *be* and an *-ing* form of the principal verb, are called **progressive verb phrases**. There are progressive forms for every tense of a verb.

Such verb phrases as *do walk* and *did walk* are called **emphatic verb phrases**. They are formed by combining the present, *do*, or the past, *did*, of the verb *do* with a principal verb.

The progressive and emphatic forms for the present tense of the verb *walk* are as follows:

PRESENT TENSE—PROGRESSIVE FORM

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I am walking	We are walking
<i>Second Person</i>	You are walking	You are walking
<i>Third Person</i>	He, she, or it is walking	They are walking

PRESENT TENSE—EMPHATIC FORM

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I do walk	We do walk
<i>Second Person</i>	You do walk	You do walk
<i>Third Person</i>	He, she, or it does walk	They do walk

Give the progressive and emphatic forms for the past tense, and the progressive forms for the future tense of the verb *walk*.

Exercises. A. What is the tense of each of the verbs and verb phrases in the following sentences? How do you know? Which are progressive forms? emphatic forms?

1. She brushed the dust from her skirts.
2. They were traveling through the desert.
3. The heat will make you sleepy.
4. We shall soon reach the end of the journey.
5. A dog is barking somewhere.
6. She does not like dogs.
7. An engine whistled in the distance.
8. They did not hear it again.
9. The travelers were looking about the room.
10. They saw wolf skins on the floor.
11. The moon shines brightly.
12. It is turning the plains to silver.
13. What time do you have supper?
14. We shall be eating breakfast at seven o'clock tomorrow.
15. An hour later you will be starting to school.

B. Repeat the present tense of each of these verbs:

give	write	ring	ride	drive	begin
go	come	hear	fall	take	say
have	run	swim	bring	blow	ask

C. Choose the correct form of the verb in each of the following sentences, and give the reason for your choice.

1. He (give, gave) it to me yesterday.
2. My grandmother (begin, began) to sew when she was six years old.
3. I (ask, asked) her to go with us a long time ago.
4. When I was at school I (see, saw) it in the paper.
5. I (run, ran) almost a mile before supper yesterday.
6. We went in when it (begin, began) to rain.
7. When we (came, come) to a brook we jumped over.
8. I (hear, heard) last week that you were coming.
9. He (says, said) that he was going to leave soon.
10. The rain (come, came) in the night.

11. They (ask, asked) us to come to dinner last Tuesday.
12. When the wind (begin, began) to blow, I knew that the ship was lost.
13. I think they (come, came) by the highway.
14. He (says, said) to me, "You'll never find him."
15. The enemy turned and (run, ran).
16. The boy (come, came) along soon.

D. Repeat the following forms until you know them thoroughly. Then give each verb in this way:

Present, *I go every day.* Past, *I went yesterday.*

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
go	went	swim	swam
give	gave	burst	burst
do	did	draw	drew
ask	asked	ride	rode
eat	ate	fall	fell
say	said	bring	brought
speak	spoke	drive	drove
write	wrote	take	took
come	came	begin	began
ring	rang	blow	blew
run	ran	break	broke
see	saw	throw	threw
hear	heard	sit	sat

E. How is the future tense of a verb formed? Give the future tense of each of the verbs in Exercise C in this manner:

Future tense, singular number, first person, *I shall go*; second person, *you will go*; third person, *he, she, or it will go*; plural number, first person, *we shall go*; second person, *you will go*; third person, *they will go*.

Then give the forms without naming them, in this way:

I shall go; you will go; he, she, or it will go; we shall go; you will go; they will go.

68. *Shall* and *Will*

Shall and *will* are two very troublesome words. Turn to Lesson 67 again to see how they are used in the future tense.

1. When we wish to express future time we say:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I shall	We shall
You will	You will
He, she, or it will	They will

I shall come means "I am going to come." It announces my coming as something that will happen in the future.

These sentences illustrate the use of *shall* and *will* to denote futurity:

1. I shall read *St. Nicholas* this evening.
2. We shall enjoy the party.
3. You will hear about it tomorrow.
4. She will ask many questions.
5. They will try to succeed.

With what person is *shall* used to denote future time?
With what persons is *will* used?

To express future time use *shall* with the first person and *will* with the second and third.

2. When we wish to express determination we say:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I will	We will
You shall	You shall
He, she, or it shall	They shall

The forms that are often confused are *I shall* and *I will*, *we shall* and *we will*. *I will go* means "I have made up my mind to go, I am determined to go." *We will go* means, "We have made up our minds to go, we are determined to go." *I will* and *we will* express determination on the part of the speaker with respect to his own actions.

You shall, *he shall*, and *they shall* also express determination on the part of the speaker, but with respect to some one else's actions. *You shall not go* means "I am determined that you shall not go." *He shall go* means "I am determined that he shall go."

Notice carefully how *shall* and *will* are used in these sentences. Some of the sentences express a greater degree of determination than others, but all of them imply a certain amount of determination upon the part of the speaker.

1. I will do what you wish. (Willingness)
2. We will not speak of it to any one. (Promise)
3. You shall not escape punishment. (Threat)
4. He shall have a reward. (Promise)
5. They shall not hurt that dog. (Promise)

With what person is *will* used in these sentences? With what person is *shall* used?

To express determination use *will* with the first person and *shall* with the second and third.

Explain the use of *shall* and *will* in the following sentences:

1. I shall probably go to town tomorrow.
2. We shall go, also, if it does not rain.
3. I will learn that lesson, no matter how long it takes me.
4. We will try harder, since you wish us to do so.
5. You will not like that book.
6. You shall not make such statements.

7. He will start for the coast tomorrow.
8. She will not be at home at that time.
9. It will probably snow.
10. They will meet us at the theatre.
11. Those people will catch cold.
12. He shall go home early.
13. She shall go, if it can possibly be arranged.
14. They shall not harm you.
15. Rose and Steven shall have some candy.

3. In questions always use *shall* in the first person. But in the second and third persons use *shall* or *will* according as *shall* or *will* is expected in the answer.

These sentences illustrate the use of *shall* and *will* in questions.

<i>Question</i>	<i>Answer Expected</i>
Shall you go to town today?	I shall. (Futurity)
Will you go to town today?	I will. (Determination)
Will he go to town today?	He will. (Futurity)
Shall he go to town today?	He shall. (Determination)

Should is the past of *shall*, and *would* the past of *will*. With some important exceptions *should* and *would* are used in the same way as *shall* and *will*.

Exercise. Select the proper auxiliary in the following sentences and give the reason for your choice:

1. We (shall, will) find the culprits who cut this woodwork.
(Express determination)
2. We actors (shall, will) try to remember when we are to appear. (Futurity)
3. I (shall, will) sing in the chorus. (Futurity)
4. (Shall, Will) you go abroad this summer? (Futurity)

5. I (shall, will) deliver a message. (Determination)
6. (Shall, Will) you stop at Aunt Flo's house on your way to town to deliver a message for me? (I wish you to.)
7. (Shall, Will) they need their overcoats? (Futurity)
8. I feared I (should, would) be late.
9. The mother asks, "(Shall, Will) my children have to remain long after school closes?" (Futurity)
10. Dorothy and John (shall, will) soon start to school.
11. Father very determinedly said, "You (shall, will) stay at home."
12. (Shall, Will) you be at school tomorrow? (Futurity)
13. (Shall, Will) I write this on the board? (Do you wish me to?)
14. We (shall, will) divide our money. (Futurity)
15. I (shall, will) be glad to help you. (Futurity)
16. (Shall, Will) you run to the store for me? (I wish you to.)
17. Helen, Ida, and I (shall, will) gather the nuts. (Promise)
18. We (shall, will) have a good time, I know. (Futurity)
19. You (shall, will) do that. (Determination)
20. (Shall, Will) you read for me tonight? (Promise)

69. Agreement of Subject and Verb

As you already know, nouns and pronouns may be either singular or plural, and may denote either the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person, place, or thing spoken of. Since nouns nearly always denote the person, place, or thing spoken of, they are nearly always in the third person.

A verb is also said to have person and number, and must agree in person and number with its subject. The present tense given on the next page shows that there is only one instance in which this agreement of the verb with its subject

is denoted by a change of form. Which form is this? How does it differ from the others?

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I work	We work
<i>Second Person</i>	You work	You work
<i>Third Person</i>	He, she, or it works	They work

A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

What is the past tense of the verb *work*? Are there any changes in this tense to show agreement in person and number? Are there any changes in the form *work* in the future tense? You see that the only change in the form of the verb *work* to show agreement in number and person occurs in the third person singular of the present tense. This is true of all verbs with the exception of the verb *be*, which you will study in the next lesson.

What is the person of nearly all nouns? What person of the verb must be used with such nouns?

Give the number and person, and the reason for the number and person, of each of the verbs and verb phrases in the following sentences:

1. The boy ran down the street.
2. The boys ran down the street.
3. John helps his father.
4. The children help their mother.
5. The teacher corrects the papers.
6. The teachers correct the papers.
7. I am stronger than Roger.
8. We played games in the evening.
9. The brook freezes every winter.
10. The pond will freeze tonight.
11. They are already late.

12. Henry will be late.
13. Will he answer the question?
14. Judith and Margery came home yesterday.
15. I saw them last night.

In these sentences it is easy to see the reason for the person and number of the verb. In the five cases below, however, you will need to notice very carefully what person and number of the verb should be used.

1. What is a collective noun? A collective noun takes either a singular or a plural verb, according to whether you are thinking of the group as a whole, or of the individual members of the group.

Our base-ball team *is* the best in the state.

The family *is* away.

The family *were* sorry not to see you.

The committee *are* still divided in their opinions.

In the first sentence you are thinking of the team as a whole, and in the second sentence of the family as a whole. Therefore the verb must be singular. But in the third sentence you are thinking of the individual members of the family, and in the fourth sentence of the individual members of the committee. Therefore plural verbs are used.

2. Nouns modified by the adjectives *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*, take singular verbs.

Neither dog *is* cross.

Each man *has* his own opinions upon that subject.

3. Singular nouns or pronouns joined by *or* or *nor* take singular verbs; plural nouns or pronouns joined by *or* or *nor* take plural verbs.

Either Frank or Lewis *has* the magazine.

Neither the boys nor the girls *are* ready to stop playing.

When the nouns or pronouns joined by *or* or *nor* are different in number or person the verb usually takes the number and person of the noun or pronoun nearest it.

Neither Edgar nor his brothers *were* at the party.

Neither my friends nor I *am* interested.

4. What is a compound subject? A compound subject takes a plural verb.

Jessie and Eliza *are* in my class.

The streets and sidewalks *were* very icy.

5. Remember that a predicate verb must agree with its subject in person and number, even though the order of the sentence is transposed.

Where *were* the violets that you saw?

Here on the table *are* your pens.

The subject substantive of the first sentence is *violets*. *Violets* is plural, and is in the third person. Therefore the third person plural form of the verb is used. Show that the verb in the second sentence agrees in number and person with its subject.

Exercises. A. Point out the predicate verb in each of the following sentences, and give the tense, person, number, and agreement of each, in this way:

Ran is a verb, past tense, third person, singular number, agreeing with the subject *child*.

1. The child ran to meet his father.
2. The children ran to meet their father.
3. Uncle John gave me a fine present yesterday.
4. Uncle John will give me a present on my birthday.
5. The boys swam across the river.

6. That boy swims better than any of the others.
7. I hear the wind in the trees.
8. We hear the wind in the trees.
9. The old man took a pinch of snuff.
10. The old men took snuff.
11. Francis sails his boat in the harbor.
12. Francis sailed his boat yesterday.
13. Francis will sail his boat tomorrow.
14. The bugles blow shrilly.
15. The bugles blew shrilly.
16. The bugles will blow at the appointed hour.
17. I bring you tidings of great joy.
18. Children, you are noisy.
19. Will he go to the party?
20. On the dusty shelf lay an old book.

B. Point out the predicate verbs and verb phrases in each of the following sentences. Give the person and number of each and the reason for its person and number.

1. We heard a radio concert last night.
2. It was a very good one.
3. Has your brother a radio set?
4. Neither Jane nor Julia has one.
5. Every person in the room was interested.
6. The class was working very hard.
7. The family are reading her last novel.
8. Neither my mother nor I have the book.
9. She is very musical.
10. Neither the pens nor the ink is on the table.
11. The spectators left the field.
12. The black horse won first prize.
13. Neither the white horse nor the gray pony won a ribbon.
14. That man rides well.
15. We shall hurry home to supper.

16. I wore my blue dress.
17. Rats or mice gnawed holes in the kitchen drawer.
18. My mother bought fresh vegetables at the fair.
19. The jellies and preserves tasted good.
20. Neither you nor I like ginger.
21. Maria drove through the forest.
22. Maria and her father drove through the forest.
23. Where shall I find you?
24. We shall meet you at the station.

C. Write two sentences to illustrate each of the five special cases of the agreement of a verb with its subject. In each case give the reason for the person and number of the verb.

70. The Verb *Be*.

The most frequently used verb in the English language is *be* in its various forms. The most common forms of this verb are *am, is, are, was, were, will be, shall be, has been, have been, and had been*.

What does the tense of a verb indicate? What three tenses have you studied?

The present, past, and future tenses of the verb *be* are as follows:

PRESENT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I am	We are
You are	You are
He, she, or it is	They are

PAST TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I was	We were
You were	You were
He, she, or it was	They were

FUTURE TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I shall be	We shall be
You will be	You will be
He, she, or it will be	They will be

In what two ways does a verb agree with its subject? What is the person and number of *he*? Why do we say *he is* instead of *he are*? The verb *be* has, in the singular of the present tense, one form, *am*, which is used with the subject *I*; another form, *are*, which is used with the subject *you*; and a third form, *is*, which is used with the subject *he*, *she*, or *it*. In the plural of the present tense the same form, *are*, is used for all subjects. What two forms does the verb *be* have in the past tense? With what subjects is each used?

Notice that we say *you are* and *you were* even when the subject refers to only one person. This is because *you* was originally plural in meaning, and is still plural in form. Its singular, *thou*, is no longer used in everyday English. Since *you* is plural in form, the verb which is used with it must also be plural.

In conversation and in informal compositions contractions of the present tense are often used. The contracted forms of the present of *be*, used with the verb *go*, are given below. What tense of the verb *go* is this?

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I'm going	We're going
You're going	You're going
He's going	They're going
She's going	
It's going	

The negative forms are:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I'm not going	We're not going
You're not going	You're not going
He's not going	They're not going
She's not going	
It's not going	

or

I'm not going	We aren't going
You aren't going	You aren't going
He isn't going	They aren't going
She isn't going	
It isn't going	

Do not use *ain't*. Why?

Exercises. *A.* Learn the present, the past, and the future tenses of the verb *be*.

B. Use all the forms of the verb *be* that you can in each sentence below. When you have done so, give your reason as follows:

I shall use *is* in the first sentence because it is in the third person, singular, agreeing with the subject *Jane*.

1. Jane — a very pretty little girl.
2. We — not enemies.
3. No one — absent from school.
4. They — at home.
5. By this time the girl — in tears.
6. The house — almost finished.
7. My family — at the picnic.
8. A big watermelon — there.
9. Where — they?
10. The tree — like a sentinel by the gateway.

C. Write the following sentences correctly. Give the grammatical reason for your choice of words. Tell why it would be incorrect to use the other word.

1. You (was, were) absent today.
2. (Was, Were) you there?
3. They (was, were) in the back seat.
4. (Was, Were) you frightened?
5. What (was, were) you doing out there?
6. Where (is, are) their coats and hats?
7. We certainly (was, were) glad to see you.
8. They (was, were) funny animals.
9. The baby's hands (is, are) dirty.
10. (Is, Are) those marbles yours?
11. Why (wasn't, weren't) you at church?
12. Yes, we (was, were) in the country.
13. What (was, were) their names?
14. I know that they (wasn't, weren't) ready to go.
15. You (was, were) tardy today.
16. Many bushels of corn (is, are) stored here.
17. Where (is, are) those boys?
18. (Wasn't, Weren't) you tired yesterday?
19. Here (is, are) our shoes.
20. We (wasn't, weren't) going until tomorrow.
21. The buildings on that street (was, were) very ugly.
22. We (was, were) planning a basket ball game.

71. *There* as an Introductory Word

Point out the subject substantive and the predicate verb in each of these sentences.

Did the fire alarm ring last night?
 On the beach was a deserted hut.

In what kind of sentence does the verb nearly always precede the subject? Why do we sometimes use the transposed order in declarative sentences also? In what two ways does a verb agree with its subject? Show that the predicate verb in each of the illustrative sentences agrees with its subject.

Now notice the following sentence:

There are many roses in this garden.

In this sentence we are really talking about *roses*, not about *there*. What, therefore, is the subject of the sentence? This can be seen most easily by rearranging the sentence in this way:

Many roses are in this garden.

In the sentence "There are many roses in this garden," *there* is not essential to the meaning of the sentence, but is used as an introductory word and is called an **expletive**. The word *expletive* means "filling in." When *there* is used as an introductory word, the order of the sentence is transposed. What is the number of the noun *roses*? Show that the verb *are* agrees with it.

Exercises. A. Find the subject substantive in each of the following sentences. Read each sentence, selecting the verb form that agrees with the subject.

1. There (is, are) too much salt in this pudding.
2. There (is, are) some fine trees in your orchard.
3. There (was, were) a deserted hut on the beach.
4. There (was, were) many distinguished people in the audience.
5. There (is, are) many pages in this book.
6. There (was, were) several people in the room.

B. Point out the predicate verb in each of the following sentences and show that it agrees in person and number with its subject.

1. There was not a ray of sunlight in the forest.
2. There were two figures in the road.
3. There will be hot weather in August.
4. There is a strand of seaweed about her wrist.
5. There was a fire down town last night.
6. A rope of pearls hung about her neck.
7. There are stars in the sky.
8. One of the players is sick.
9. There will be many people at the play.
10. Many barrels of sugar were on the wharf.

72. Variety and Vividness—Verbs

Both in writing and in talking we should try to use as great a variety of words as possible. If we use the same words over and over again, what we write and say is flat and lifeless. To lend variety we make use of synonyms. We should try, also, to make our language vivid. When we are telling a story or describing something, we want to make others see the pictures which are in our minds. One way of doing this is to make our words specific,—that is, to choose always the one word which fits the particular case in hand better than any other word. Notice, for instance, the difference in meaning in the following words:

to go means “to pass from one point to another”

to flit means “to pass lightly and quickly”

to fly means “to pass through the air with wings”

Anything that has motion may be said to *go*. But the verb *flit* denotes a particular way of passing, and the verb *fly* means to pass through the air with wings. When the verb *fly* is applied to a human being we mean that he or she moves *as if* with wings. Which of these three verbs is most general in meaning, and therefore least descriptive?

In the following sentence why is the verb *flit* used to describe the motions of the bat, rather than those of the owl?

An owl flew from the pine tree; a bat flitted by; the moonlight brightened and broadened on the water.

Notice the other verbs in this sentence. What picture do *brightened* and *broadened* give that *shone*, when used instead, does not?

Explain the difference in the meaning of *flit*, *flutter*, *flicker*, and *hover*. Illustrate the use of each of these verbs in a sentence.

In the following selection from Victor Hugo, the great French writer, notice the many verbs he has used in describing the movements of a ten-thousand-pound cannon which broke loose from its fastenings on shipboard and rolled about the deck as the ship plunged and tossed on the waves.

A cannon that breaks loose from its fastenings is suddenly transformed into a beast. It is a monster developed from a machine. This mass runs along on its wheels as easily as a billiard ball; it rolls with the rolling, pitches with the pitching, comes and goes, stops, seems to meditate, begins anew, darts like an arrow from one end of the ship to the other, whirls around, turns aside, evades, rears, hits out, crushes, kills, exterminates. It is a ram battering a wall at its own pleasure. Moreover, the battering-ram is iron, the wall is wood. . . .

The mad mass leaps like a panther; it has the weight of an elephant, the agility of a mouse, the obstinacy of the ox; it takes one by surprise, like the surge of the sea; it flashes like lightning; it is deaf as the tomb; it weighs ten thousand pounds, and it bounds like a child's ball; it whirls as it advances, and the circles it describes are intersected by right angles. And what help is there? How can it be overcome?

Victor Hugo says that the cannon *runs along, rolls, pitches*, and so on. Make a list of all the verbs that describe its movements. What is the exact meaning of each of these verbs?

All of these verbs are in what tense? The present tense is sometimes used instead of the past tense for the sake of vividness. Victor Hugo's use of the present tense helps the reader to think of the incident as actually taking place.

If you begin to relate an incident as if it were occurring in the present, you must tell it from the viewpoint of the present throughout. If, on the other hand, you decide to tell it in the past time you must continue to tell it in this way. In quoting the direct words of some one you will, of course, have to use whatever tenses the speaker himself used. But in all other cases, keep the time of the whole story either present or past. If you begin your composition in the present tense and every now and then change to the past tense, the reader or listener is likely to get only a confused impression of what you are trying to tell.

Exercises. A. Rewrite these sentences twice, replacing the verbs each time with others which give a more vivid picture of what happened. For instance, the first sentence says, "The boy went into the yard and laid his cap on the grass." You may say, "The boy shot into the yard and hurled his cap on the grass," or "The boy slouched into the

yard and dropped his cap on the grass." By the first change, you are given a picture of swift, violent action. By the second, you are given a picture of leisurely, quiet motion. See what different mental pictures you can obtain by changing these sentences:

1. The boy went into the yard and laid his cap on the grass.
2. The dog took the bone and ate it.
3. The man went down stairs and out of the front door.
4. The automobile ran into a telephone pole and broke it.
5. Under cover of the darkness the thief walked up to the house.
6. The wind blew through the great oaks.
7. After the storm, gigantic waves broke upon the beach.
8. The rain fell upon the roof.
9. My dog attacked the intruder.
10. Lights shone in all the windows.
11. The angry policeman spoke to the driver.
12. The exhausted girl sat down in a chair.

B. Bring to class a few sentences with especially vivid verbs, selected from some book you are reading.

C. Read this anecdote. Make the changes in tense forms of the verbs necessary to relate the incident in past time.

A man *called* at a village postoffice for a registered letter which he *is expecting*. The letter *is* there, but the clerk *refused* to hand it over, as he *has* no means of identifying the caller. The caller *took* a photograph of himself from his pocket and *remarks*:

"I think that ought to satisfy you as to who I am."

The clerk *looks* long and earnestly at the portrait and then *said*:

"Yes, that's you, all right. Here's your letter."

D. What changes are necessary in the tense forms of the verbs in this selection, if it is to be told from the point of view of the present?

I was sitting at the open window. It is not yet dawn; there was a faint whiteness in the east; the warm, dark night is changing into the cold morning. No mists were rising, no breath of air stirred. All was colorless, soundless; yet one already feels the approach of day, and there was a strong dewy fragrance.

73. Short Talks

Prepare short talks on two of these subjects, or upon two different personal experiences. Consult your checking list to refresh your memory. Try to use verbs which are specific.

1. My First Experience As a Cook
2. The Best Movie I Ever Saw
3. A Chase
4. An Exciting Game
5. A Trip I Shall Always Remember

Word Study. Some people do not pronounce the *h* in *wh* clearly, saying *wile* instead of *while*. To avoid falling into this error, repeat the following words carefully until you are sure that you can say them accurately.

whiskers	while	when	wharf
whisper	which	whether	whip
whittle	where	whim	why
wheel	white	what	whirl

74. *Doesn't* and *Don't*

In what way does the third person singular, of the present tense of a verb differ from the other forms of the present

tense? What is the number and the person of the form *does*? *Does* is the only form of the verb *do* which may be used with *he*, *she*, or *it* in the present tense. Why is this so? In what two ways must a verb agree with its subject?

Doesn't is a contraction of *does* and *not*. Which is correct, *He don't like me*, or *He doesn't like me*? Why?

Of what two words is *don't* a contraction? With what pronouns may *don't* be used? Remember that *He don't like me* is really *He do not like me*. Why is this incorrect?

Which form, *doesn't* or *don't*, is correct in each of the following sentences? Why?

1. She (don't, doesn't) look well.
2. It (doesn't, don't) look new.
3. That (doesn't, don't) look right.
4. Martha (don't, doesn't) like tea.
5. My father (don't, doesn't) like to run.
6. The girls (doesn't, don't) like cold weather.
7. Who (doesn't, don't) like a good book.
8. We (don't, doesn't) like her.

Remember that no matter whether the subject is a personal pronoun, a pronoun such as *this*, *that*, or *who*, or a noun—if it is singular and in the third person, *doesn't* is the form to use. Why?

It will help you to avoid the error of using *don't* for *doesn't* if you learn the present tense of *do* with the negative, as follows:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I do not	We do not
You do not	You do not
He, she, or it does not	They do not

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I don't	We don't
You don't	You don't
He, she, or it doesn't	They don't

Doesn't is a third person singular form, and must be used with subjects that are in the third person, singular number.

Exercise. Choose the correct form in the following sentences. Give the rule as follows:

In the first sentence *doesn't* should be used because it is the third person singular form, agreeing with the subject *it*.

1. It (doesn't, don't) matter who goes.
2. We (don't, doesn't) like flies.
3. He (don't, doesn't) know his lesson.
4. (Doesn't, Don't) she ever come on time?
5. You (doesn't, don't) know this man.
6. Farmers (doesn't, don't) live in the city.
7. I hope it (doesn't, don't) rain.
8. It (don't, doesn't) matter if it is raining.
9. We (don't, doesn't) often gather violets.
10. That general (don't, doesn't) forget the names of his officers.
11. He (don't, doesn't) use this kind of oil.
12. My brother (don't, doesn't) own this building.
13. The oriole (don't, doesn't) build a nest like that of the wren.
14. (Don't, Doesn't) that man ever get tired?
15. That (don't, doesn't) answer my question.

75. *Can and May*

The verb *can* is used to tell what a person is *able* to do. *May* is used to tell what a person is *allowed* or has *permission*

to do. When you say, "The boy *can* walk," you mean that the boy has the power, or is able to walk. But when you are asking permission to do something, use *may*; as, "May I go to town with Beatrice?"

"May I take this book?" means "Have I permission to take this book?" or "Will you give me permission to take this book?" Do not say, "*Can* I take this book?" because that would mean "*Am I able* to take this book?" *Can* is used to express ability, and *may* to express permission.

Could is the past tense of *can*, and *might* is the past tense of *may*. *Could* and *might* are usually used in the same way as *can* and *may*, *could* meaning "was able," and *might* meaning "was permitted."

Exercise. Choose the correct word in the following sentences, and give the reason for your choice.

1. (May, Can) I speak to Harry?
2. Did you say that I (might, could) go?
3. Mother, (can, may) I cook this egg for breakfast?
4. I know that you (can, may) skate, but will your mother let you go?
5. (Can, May) I show you how that opens?
6. You (could, might) have gone home yesterday, if you had asked me about it.
7. Mother said that I (could, might) go, but I decided not to.
8. What (might, could) you do in a case like that?
9. Father, (can, may) I play ball a while longer?
10. (Can, May) I play the piano now?

76. Giving Directions

Suppose that as you are walking home from school a stranger asks you to direct him to Mr. Phillips' house. If you know where Mr. Phillips lives, explain briefly how to

get there. In order to make your explanation clear, state the directions in the order in which they should be followed, and mention such striking signs or landmarks as you think will enable the inquirer to follow your directions.

Exercise. Select two of the following suggestions and direct a stranger (1) from your home to a bakery; (2) from a filling station to a leading park; (3) from some store to your school; (4) from your school to the public library.

Direct your teacher from your school to your home.

77. Explanations

In Lesson 76 you learned how to direct a person from one place to another. Frequently, however, you are called upon to make other kinds of explanations. Some one asks, for instance, "How do you build a fire in a furnace?" or "How do you prepare potato seed?" and you answer by explaining how these things are done. In order to give a clear explanation, you must first know exactly how the fire is built or the potato seed is prepared. Next, you must state the steps of the process in the order in which they should be performed. Notice how carefully Bernard Livingston has arranged the details in his explanation of building a fire in a furnace.

HOW TO BUILD A FIRE IN A FURNACE

How do you build a fire in a furnace? I'll tell you. First of all you must open the damper in the smoke-pipe leading to the chimney. Next, if there are any ashes on the grate, shake them down into the ash-pit and, after the ashes have been removed, put some crumpled papers in the ash-pit. Now place a layer of crumpled paper on top of the grate. On top of this put some soft wood kindlings. Crosswise above the soft wood lay a few

pieces of hard wood, and on top of this a few more pieces of crumpled paper. Leave the lower door of the furnace slightly open, to create a draft. Then light the papers in the ash-pit and those on top of the wood. The draft created will draw the flame from the burning paper in the ash-pit up through the grate to the crumpled paper and the wood. After the wood has burned for three or four minutes, shovel on a little coal. Gradually add more until you have a good bed of coals. When the fire is well started, close the lower door of the furnace, and the damper in the smoke-pipe. Try these directions some cold morning, and surprise your father.

What are the steps mentioned in the paragraph on building a fire in a furnace? Make a list of them, in outline form. Are these steps arranged in the order in which they should be taken? Is each step necessary to the successful building of a furnace fire? If the detail about opening the damper in the smoke-pipe were not given until after the statement about lighting the fire, what difficulty would any one following the directions step by step experience? If no directions were given as to the way in which the wood and paper should be put in, what would probably be the result? Only some one who had built furnace fires and therefore knew exactly how it was done, could state the directions so precisely. If the topic of this paragraph were expressed in one sentence, instead of two, what would the sentence be?

Now read the following explanation carefully, noticing the different steps involved.

HOW TO PREPARE POTATO SEED

Select for seed medium-sized potatoes which are true to the type of the potato you are planting. A round potato, although even and pretty, would not be true to the *Early Rose* type. Even if the price is high, seed potatoes cost so little more

than table potatoes that it is worth the small extra expense to plant only perfect ones, using the others for the table. Like breeds like. If you plant a seed from a poorly shaped potato, that is just what you are likely to dig from the hill.

If you examine a potato, you will find that on one end there are no eyes. At the other end there are several eyes close together. On the sides there are usually four or five more. Plan to cut the potato so that each piece will have one or two good eyes and a solid piece of flesh. The best way is to stand the potato on a board, with the eye end up. Cut down between the two best eyes in the end, taking care to divide the eyes on the sides as evenly as possible. One can usually get from four to six seed pieces from a medium-sized potato. Do not divide a piece having two eyes unless you can have with each eye a good piece of flesh, cut to the center. The chances of getting a good crop are much less if only a small, thin piece is left with the eye.

The steps in this explanation might be outlined in this way:

How to Prepare Potato Seed

1. Kind of potatoes to select
2. Cutting the seed

Would this explanation be better or not so good if topic 2 were discussed before topic 1? Why?

Exercises. A. Prepare an oral composition explaining how something is made. Perhaps one of the following suggestions will help you. First make an outline of your explanation, arranging the steps in the order in which they should be performed.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1. Bread | 5. An apron |
| 2. Apple pie | 6. A shelter for the night in
the woods |
| 3. Fudge | 7. A pretty string of beads |
| 4. A fire without matches | |

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|
| 8. A little corner bookshelf | 10. A raffia basket |
| 9. A pansy bed | 11. A slipknot |

B. Write an explanation of something that you know how to make or do, being careful to arrange the steps in the order in which they should be performed. Perhaps you will find a subject that appeals to you in the following list:

1. How to Polish Shoes Neatly
2. How to Use the Card Index at the Library
3. How to Conduct One's Self in the Public Library
4. How to Write a Good Paragraph
5. How to Put Up a Radio Set
6. How to Use a Camera
7. How to Make a Bird House
8. How to Read Music
9. How to Make a Bag
10. How to Teach a Dog to Sit Up
11. How to Teach a Cat to Jump over Your Hands
12. How to Blaze a Trail
13. How to Select Seed Corn
14. How to Raise Turkeys
15. How to Fly a Kite in a Park

78. Transitive Verbs

You have learned that a sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought, and that every complete thought, thus expressed, has two parts. What are they? What is the principal word of the subject called? What name is given to the principal word of the predicate? Repeat the definition of a verb given in Lesson 15. Now read the following:

1. Washington crossed
2. The man sold
3. John found
4. We lost
5. The teacher can trust

Although the groups of words above contain nouns and verbs they are not sentences. The reason for this is, as you know, that they do not express complete thoughts.

Suppose, however, we add words as follows:

1. Washington crossed the *Delaware*.
2. The man sold *apples*.
3. John found his *brother*.
4. We lost our *dog*.
5. The teacher can trust *him*.

In sentence 1, *Delaware* tells *what* Washington crossed. It completes the meaning of the verb. In sentence 2, *apples* tells what was sold and completes the meaning of the verb. In sentences 3, 4, and 5, what words complete the meaning of the verbs *found*, *lost*, and *trust*? In each of the sentences the action of the verb is carried over to some person or object. The nouns *Delaware*, *apples*, *brother*, and *dog*, and the pronoun *him* name the *receivers* or the *objects* of the action expressed by the verbs. They are called **direct objects**. Direct objects answer the question *what*?

The direct object of a verb is the word that denotes the receiver or the object of the action expressed by the verb.

A verb which expresses action carried over to an object is called a **transitive verb**. The verbs *crossed*, *sold*, *found*, *lost*, and *trust* in the sentences above are transitive verbs.

A transitive verb is one that expresses action carried over to a person or thing.

The word *transitive* comes from two Latin words meaning "to go" and "across." The prefix *trans* means "across."

How is this meaning of the prefix *trans* shown in the words *transfer* and *transport*? A transitive verb is one in which the action "goes across" to an object.

Point out the direct object of each of the verbs in the following sentences, and tell what kind of verb each is.

1. They rang the bell at nine o'clock.
2. The yellow cat catches mice in the barn.
3. The girls sold all their candy.
4. My aunt gave a present to John.
5. The wind storm broke the tops of all the birch trees.
6. The whirling current capsized the canoe.
7. He brushed the twigs from the hearth into the fire.
8. The policeman carried the little child across the street.
9. The newsboy had sold his papers by five o'clock.
10. The mounted policeman caught the runaway horse.
11. She carried a glass of water on a small tray.
12. The robins have built a nest in the maple tree.
13. They hung the swing far up in the old elm tree.
14. His mother will scold him.
15. The teacher will praise her.

Now read these sentences:

1. My aunt gave me a present.
2. I sent my friend a book.
3. The agent sold my father a farm.
4. He bought me a dog.

In the first sentence what did the aunt give? In the second what did I send? In the third what did the agent sell? In the fourth what did *he* buy? *Present, book, farm,* and *dog* are the direct objects of the verbs *gave, sent, sold,* and *bought*, respectively. *Me* tells to whom the present was given. What word tells *to whom* the book was sent? What

word tells *to whom* the farm was sold? What word tells *for whom* the dog was bought? The words *me, friend, father, and me* tell *to whom* or *for whom* something was done. Since they indirectly receive the action of the verb, they are called **indirect objects**.

The indirect object of a verb is the noun or the pronoun that indicates *to whom, to what, for whom, or for what*, something is done.

It is always possible to insert the preposition *to* or *for* before the indirect object without changing the meaning of the sentence. *My aunt gave me a present* has the same meaning as *My aunt gave a present to me*. Read the other sentences, supplying the preposition which may be inserted before each indirect object.

Exercises. A. Find the verb in each of the following sentences. Is it a transitive verb? Why? What is the direct object in each sentence? What indirect objects do you find?

1. Columbus discovered America.
2. The newsboy earned money.
3. Bryant translated the *Iliad* of Homer.
4. Father gave me a dollar.
5. We sent father and mother a message.
6. The general gave the soldier his medal of honor.
7. John made his mother a bread board.
8. Will you lend John and me your pencil?
9. The king sent him a beautiful sword.
10. The setting sun gave the glacier a ruddy glow.

B. Write five sentences containing transitive verbs and direct objects. Write five containing both direct and indirect objects.

79. Intransitive Verbs

Are the following sentences complete? What is the subject of each? the predicate? Is the meaning in each complete? Are there any objects?

1. The wind blows.
2. Children laugh.
3. Birds sing.
4. Fish swim.

Some verbs do not need objects to complete their meaning. Such verbs are called **intransitive**. In the sentences just given, *blows*, *laugh*, *sing*, and *swim* are intransitive verbs. *Intransitive* means "not going across." The action expressed by an intransitive verb does not take effect upon an object.

An intransitive verb is one that does not require an object.

It is possible for a verb to be transitive in one sense and intransitive in another. Tell in which of the following sentences the verb is transitive and in which it is intransitive.

1. Mary *sang* but would not play.
2. Mary *sang* the last song on the program.
3. The boy *returned* to his home.
4. The boy *returned* the money.

Intransitive verbs are of two kinds. Examples of one of these kinds are found in the first four sentences of this lesson. Such intransitive verbs as these, which are complete in themselves, are called **complete verbs**.

Sometimes, however, an intransitive verb is not complete in itself, but is used simply to link the subject with a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective which stands in the predicate. This kind is found in the sentences following:

1. He *is* a king.
2. The man *was* his grandfather.
3. The good fairies *were* kind.
4. The flowers *looked* withered.
5. These men *are* life guards.
6. It *is* I.

In the first sentence *he* and *king* mean the same person. *King* tells us something about the subject *he*. In the same way, in the second sentence, *grandfather* explains who the *man* was. *Kind* merely describes *fairies*, and *withered* describes *flowers*. *I* tells who *it* is. An intransitive verb which is used simply to link the subject with a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective which stands in the predicate is called a **linking verb**.

Forms of the verb *be* (*is, are, was, were, has been, could be, etc.*), are linking verbs. Such verbs as *appear, seem, look, become, grow, feel, taste, sound, and smell* are also usually used as linking verbs.

When an adjective modifying the subject stands in the predicate it is called a **predicate adjective**. What predicate adjectives do you find in the six sentences just given? A noun which stands in the predicate, after a linking verb, is called a **predicate noun**. Are there any predicate nouns in the sentences above? What are they? A pronoun used in this way is called a **predicate pronoun**. What is *I*, in sentence 6? Although such words stand in the predicate, they are not objects because, instead of indicating the receiver or object of the action expressed by the verb, they define or describe the subject of the sentence. Predicate nouns, pronouns, and adjectives may be spoken of as **predicate words**.

Exercises. A. Which verbs are transitive and which

intransitive in the following sentences? Give the reason in each case in this form:

Lay does not require an object and is therefore an intransitive verb. *Built* has an object, *house*, and is therefore a transitive verb.

1. The blue hills lay peaceful in the sunlight.
2. They built a beautiful white house.
3. A boy stood on the steps.
4. The guard pushed him aside.
5. I wandered aimlessly through the fields.
6. I stood on tiptoe to see the speaker.
7. The sun sets at seven o'clock.
8. Woodman, spare that tree!
9. They threw him into a dungeon.
10. The chains jangled in that dismal place.
11. They conducted us through the palace.
12. They gave the apples away.
13. The great picture hangs behind red velvet curtains.
14. We carried her away to a far country.
15. There she lived for many years.

B. Which of the intransitive verbs in the following sentences are complete, and which are linking verbs? Point out the word that each of the linking verbs connects with the subject. What part of speech is it? What is it called when it stands in the predicate, after a linking verb, as in these sentences?

1. The roses seem very fragrant.
2. The man ran swiftly up the street.
3. The orange tastes sweet.
4. The valley is peaceful.
5. He thought for a long time before replying.
6. The boy with the green cap is Ralph.

7. Most of the pupils try hard.
8. They are becoming good students.
9. Where is the umpire?
10. That man over there is he.
11. The cave was empty.
12. Who was the girl in the red and white costume?
13. It was I.
14. The play was a great success.
15. The boy has grown tall.
16. The large airplane appeared very small.
17. The music sounds loud.
18. That dark-haired young man is a musician.

C. Write five sentences using complete verbs. Write five sentences with linking verbs; in two of them use predicate adjectives, in two use predicate nouns, and in one use a predicate pronoun.

80. Short Talks

Prepare short talks on two of these subjects. What are the points you must watch when you give a short talk?

1. How to Write a Formal Invitation
2. How to Mend an Automobile Tire
3. How to Put up a Tent
4. How to Make a Dress
5. How to Fry Doughnuts
6. How to Darn Stockings
7. How I Take Care of My Room
8. How to Raise Chickens
9. How to Tell Time
10. How to Send a Wigwag Message
11. How to Play the Piano (or some other musical instrument)

12. How to Learn to Appreciate Good Pictures
 13. How Our Mail is Delivered

Word Study. Below is a list of words which are sometimes incorrectly used. The words *mantel* and *mantle*, for instance, would give no difficulty in conversation, because their pronunciation is the same; but if you are to use them correctly in written work, you must know the meaning of each word and its spelling. What difficulties are involved in the use of each of the other pairs or groups of words? Learn to spell the two or three words in each group, and be able to state the meaning of each word and tell how it differs in meaning from the others in its group. This will be a good exercise in oral explanation. If the spelling and meaning of each of these words are clear to you, you will make no mistake in their use. Bring to class a sentence in which you have used each of these words correctly.

mantel	altar	farther	stationery
mantle	alter	further	stationary
accept	birth	beside	advice
except	berth	besides	advise
affect	capital	cloths	dairy
effect	capitol	clothes	diary
		close	

81. Case of Nouns and Pronouns

Read these two sentences:

I saw the kitten.

The kitten saw *me*.

What is the person, number, and gender of *I*? of *me*?
How are these words used in the sentences above?

Although *I* and *me* are alike as to person, number, and gender, they differ as to use and as to form. The pronoun *I* is used as the subject of a verb, whereas *me* is used as the direct object of a verb. According to the way it is used in a sentence, a personal pronoun is said to be in the **nominative**, the **accusative**, or the **dative case**. Most of the personal pronouns have one form for the nominative case, and another for the accusative case. The form for the dative case, is the same as that for the accusative.

Nouns, according to their uses in sentences, are also said to be in the nominative, accusative, or dative case, but there is no change in the form of nouns to indicate these cases.

Below are given the case forms for all persons and numbers of the personal pronouns.

FIRST PERSON

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	I	we
<i>Accusative</i>	me	us
<i>Dative</i>	me	us

SECOND PERSON

<i>Nominative</i>	you	you
<i>Accusative</i>	you	you
<i>Dative</i>	you	you .

THIRD PERSON

<i>Nominative</i>	he, she, it	they
<i>Accusative</i>	him, her, it	them
<i>Dative</i>	him, her, it	them

Nominative Case. Now let us see when a noun or a pronoun is said to be in the nominative, accusative, or dative case.

1. *He* fell down.
2. The *boy* fell down.

What is the subject substantive of the first sentence? of the second sentence? These words are said to be in the nominative case.

A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a sentence is in the nominative case.

What is the subject substantive in each of the following sentences and the case of each?

1. The dormer windows gave her little air.
2. She felt stifled.
3. When are you going to sail?
4. They opened the door.
5. We found the hammer.
6. Shall I help you?
7. It will be a difficult task.

Now notice these sentences:

1. The boy with the curly hair is *he*.
2. John is the *boy* with the dark eyes.

What kind of verb is *is*? How is the pronoun *he* used in the first sentence? How is the noun *boy* used in the second? You learned in Lesson 79 that a noun or a pronoun used after a linking verb to explain or define the subject is called respectively a *predicate noun* or a *predicate pronoun*. Since these words refer to the subject, they, as well as the subject, are in the nominative case. Because predicate nouns and

predicate pronouns are always in the nominative case, such words are sometimes called **predicate nominatives**.

A noun or a pronoun used as a predicate word is in the nominative case.

Point out the predicate nouns and the predicate pronouns in the following sentences. Give the case of each.

1. The doctor is a kind man.
2. The girl with the green coat is she.
3. It is I.
4. The boy leading the dog is he.
5. The people to whom you spoke were we.
6. It was you who gave me that information.
7. That is it.
8. That could not have been they.

Give the nominative case forms of all the personal pronouns. Remember that these are the only forms of the personal pronouns which may be used as subjects of sentences, or as predicate pronouns. In sentences such as those above, the nominative case forms of the pronouns must be used. It is wrong to say, "It is me," as *me* is not a nominative case form. Always say, "It is I." Why?

Accusative Case. What kind of verb is *praised*? Read again Lesson 78. How are the pronoun *him* and the noun *boy* used in these sentences?

1. The man praised *him*.
2. The man praised the *boy*.

The words *him* and *boy* in these sentences are in the accusative case.

A noun or a pronoun used as the direct object of a verb is in the accusative case.

Point out the words in the following sentences which are used as direct objects of verbs. Give the case of each.

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. My mother called me. | 5. I will catch it. |
| 2. I saw him. | 6. They watched us closely. |
| 3. I thank you. | 7. We found her. |
| 4. Throw the ball. | 8. We heard them when they came. |

Notice that in sentence 2 we say, "I saw *him*," not, "I saw *he*." In sentence 7 we say, "We found *her*," not, "We found *she*." When a personal pronoun is the direct object of a transitive verb, the accusative case form should be used.

As you learned in Lesson 52, nouns and pronouns may also be used as the objects of prepositions. How is the noun *boy* used in sentence 1? the pronoun *him* in sentence 2?

1. The teacher gave the book to the *boy*.
2. The teacher gave the book to *him*.

The words *boy* and *him* in these sentences are in the accusative case.

A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a preposition is in the accusative case.

Point out the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences which are used as objects of prepositions. Give the case of each.

1. She called the child to her.
2. He was standing at the door.
3. Stuart will telephone to them.
4. Did you write to him?
5. Shall I save a seat for you?
6. Please give that pencil to me.
7. They looked at us in astonishment.
8. How much shall we pay for it?

Give the accusative case forms of all the personal pronouns. Remember that these are the only forms of the personal pronouns which may be used as direct objects of verbs or as objects of prepositions.

Dative Case. Now notice these sentences:

1. The teacher gave the *boy* a book.
2. The teacher gave *him* a book.

What kind of verb is *gave*? What is the direct object of the verb *gave* in the first sentence? in the second sentence? What is the case of the direct object?

You see that the pronoun *him* in the second of these sentences has the same form that it would have if it were in the accusative case. But since it is not used here as the direct object of a verb nor as the object of a preposition, it is not in the accusative case. The pronoun *him* in this sentence is the indirect object of the verb *gave*, and is in the dative case. The dative case forms of the personal pronouns are exactly like the accusative case forms. The noun *boy* in sentence 1 is also used as an indirect object, and is said to be in the dative case.

A noun or a pronoun used as the indirect object of a verb is in the dative case.

Point out the nouns and the pronouns used as indirect objects in the following sentences. Give the case of each.

1. I wish you a happy birthday.
2. Please hand me that blotter.
3. Play us another piece.
4. She paid them five dollars.
5. I made my sister an apron.
6. My mother gave her a book.
7. Take him something to read.

Name all the personal pronouns that may be used as subjects; as predicate pronouns; as direct objects of verbs; as objects of prepositions; as indirect objects. What is the case of a pronoun used in each of these ways? Learn the nominative, the accusative, and the dative case forms of all the personal pronouns.

Genitive Case. As you have seen from the illustrative sentences in this lesson, a noun has the same form, whether it is used as a subject, a predicate noun, the direct object of a verb, the object of a preposition, or the indirect object of a verb. There is one instance, however, in which a noun changes its form to show a relation to another word in the sentence. How does a noun change its form to show possession? Read Lesson 27 again. The possessive form of a noun may be spoken of as the **genitive case**. The genitive case denotes possession. What is the case of the italicized nouns in the following sentences? How do you know?

1. The *boy's* hand was bandaged.
2. The *boys'* caps were lost.

Exercises. A. Learn the following sentences, paying particular attention to the predicate pronouns. What kind of pronoun is each? What is the case of each? Why is it correct to use this case form in these sentences?

It is I.

It is we.

It is he.

It is they.

It is she.

Whenever you find yourself making a mistake in sentences such as those above, correct yourself at once and tell yourself the reason.

B. Copy the following sentences. Draw a line between the complete subject and the complete predicate of each sentence. Underline the subject substantive. Give orally the reason for the case of each subject in this way:

The noun *castle* is the subject substantive of the sentence, and is therefore in the nominative case.

1. The gloomy castle stands at the edge of the forest.
2. We saw Mr. Hart in Paris.
3. The books on this table belong to him.
4. I have not found my book of poems.
5. *Hamlet* was written by Shakespeare.
6. Who is the author of *Tanglewood Tales*?
7. Nathaniel Hawthorne wrote them and many others.
8. Far in the east they saw a star.
9. The great star gleamed in the dark sky.
10. Pointing to the north, they shouted.

C. How is each of the italicized nouns and pronouns in the sentences below used? Give the case of each. Read again the five rules given in this lesson.

1. Please give *me* the *pencil*.
2. I cannot see *him* now.
3. Roosevelt loved his *friends*.
4. He will read these *poems* to *me*.
5. Edgar Allan Poe wrote *them*.
6. We shall send *him* the *letters*.
7. Have you thanked *her*?
8. San Diego has a beautiful *harbor*.
9. Do not praise *us*.
10. Wordsworth loved *nature*.

D. When do we use the nominative case forms of pronouns? In the following sentences choose the correct case form. As you do so, explain the reason for your choice.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. It is (me, I). | 7. It must have been (I, me). |
| 2. Was it (they, them)? | 8. It has been (us, we) every time. |
| 3. I think it is (they, them). | 9. What are (them, they) for? |
| 4. That little boy was (me, I). | 10. It was not (him, he). |
| 5. It is (she, her). | 11. It was (us, we). |
| 6. That's (him, he). | 12. I hope it will be (us, we). |

82. Correct Use of Accusative and Nominative Case

What part of speech is each of the italicized words in these sentences? How is each used? What is the case of each?

1. I wrote to *you* yesterday.
2. The sun sank behind the *hills*.
3. We all thanked *her*.
4. The present pleased my *father* very much.

The following sentences also contain nouns and pronouns used as the objects of verbs or of prepositions.

1. The dog ran to me.
2. The dog ran to Mary and me.
3. He helped them.
4. He helped them and us.

What is the case of *me* in the first sentence? of *them* in the third? Why?

Two of these sentences contain compound objects. In sentence 2 *Mary and me* is the compound object of the preposition *to*; in sentence 4 *them and us* is the compound object of the verb *helped*. Why are these objects called compound? In what case is each word in the compound object in sentence 2? Why? in sentence 4? Why?

The rule about the case of nouns and pronouns used as the objects of verbs or prepositions will help you to choose the correct form of the pronoun in a sentence containing

a compound object, such as, "He gave some apples to John and (I, me)." In the lower grades you learned to break such a sentence up into "He gave some apples to John, He gave some apples to I." But because "He gave some apples to I" did not sound right, you changed the pronoun to *me* and decided that the sentence should be "He gave some apples to John and *me*." Now, in such cases, you can apply the rule about the accusative case forms of pronouns. What is this rule?

In the sentence "He gave some apples to John and (I or me)," the pronoun you are going to use is the object of the preposition *to*. You must, therefore, use the accusative case form, and say, "He gave some apples to John and *me*." The nouns and pronouns in a compound object should be in the accusative case.

When you are in doubt as to which form of a personal pronoun to use in a compound subject, recall the rule about the case form of pronouns used as subjects. What is this rule? What is a compound subject?

In the sentence "(He, Him) and (I, me) are team mates," for instance, stop to think first how the pronouns are used. *He and I* is the compound subject of the verb *are*. You know that the subject of a sentence is in the nominative case. *He* and *I* are the nominative case forms of these pronouns, and are therefore the forms which should be used. *Him* and *me* would be incorrect here because they are the accusative case forms. The sentence should read "*He and I* are team mates."

If two pronouns, or a noun and a pronoun, are used in the predicate after a linking verb, both of them should be in the nominative case; as, "Those two boys at the back

of the picture are Frank and I." What rule will help you in such cases?

Your study of case will also help you to use the correct form of the personal pronoun after *than* and *as*.

Note that *than* and *as* are not prepositions, but conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses. What is an adverbial clause? When a pronoun is used after *than* or *as*, its case depends upon its use in the clause which is understood; to illustrate: "I like Mary better than she." The sentence means "I like Mary better than she likes Mary;" hence *she* is the subject of the verb *likes* understood. If I say, "I like Mary better than her," I mean "I like Mary better than I like her." The sentence "She is so dishonest that I would trust a thief sooner than her," means "She is so dishonest that I would trust a thief sooner than I would trust her." *Her* is the object of the verb *would trust* understood. Before deciding which case to use, fill in the understood words in the sentence. Sentences such as these, with a part unwritten but understood, are called **elliptical sentences**.

Exercise. Choose the correct pronoun in these sentences. State the grammatical reason for your choice.

1. My grandmother likes my sister and (I, me).
2. (Him, He) and (me, I) are cousins.
3. He wrote to Charles and (I, me).
4. It was a secret between (he, him) and (she, her).
5. Our French teacher talked to Jane and (me, I) in French.
6. It is surely not (him, he).
7. You and (them, they) are to choose sides.
8. The president took his son and (we, us) for a ride.
9. Why don't you give the candy to Donald and (we, us)?
10. Julian cared for his cousin and (me, I) for many years.

11. There are Mary and (she, her).
12. Elsa saw (he, him) and Donald returning.
13. Tom and (her, she) have gone away.
14. It was not (him, he) at all.
15. (Them, They) are the best skaters here.
16. Please give the skates to Anne and (she, her).
17. He is trying to find some pencils for Alice and (I, me).
18. (Him, He) and (I, me) are going to tell the story about
Cornelia's jewels.
19. Don't forget to write to (he, him) and (I, me).
20. Robert and (me, I) are on time.
21. (Them, They) are here.
22. May Dorothy and (me, I) do this for you?
23. Clara and (me, I) had a good time.
24. (Him, He) and (I, me) went down town.
25. Father and (me, I) went to look at the goods.
26. Walter and (him, he) have finished their work.
27. (Her, She) and her husband had a little talk.
28. Mildred and (them, they) did it.
29. My cousin and (me, I) went hunting.
30. (Them, They) and (us, we) bought some fireworks.
31. Their family and (us, we) had dinner together.
32. You or (them, they) ought to do it.
33. (Her, She) and (I, me) are good friends.
34. (Him, He) and (her, she) are cousins.
35. (Them, Those, They) are the ones I saw.
36. Why should (him, he) and (her, she) be chosen?
37. Tony and (me, I) are going fishing.
38. She invited Dorothy and (I, me) to her party.
39. (Her, She) and (I, me) are going to the circus.

83. Demonstrative Pronouns and Demonstrative Adjectives

This, that, these, and those are called **demonstratives**, because they are used to indicate or point out with emphasis

a particular object or objects. This fact can be seen when you notice the difference between the two sentences:

The man is large. *This* man is large.

This is singular, and refers to an object near at hand. Its plural form is *these*; as,

This man is large. *These* men are large.

That is singular, and refers to an object farther away. Its plural form is *those*; as,

That man is large. *Those* men are large.

These four demonstratives may be used either as adjectives or as pronouns. If they modify nouns they are adjectives. If they stand alone they are pronouns. In the sentences above these demonstratives are adjectives. Why? Find the demonstrative pronouns in the sentences below. How is each used?

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. This is a fine day. | 4. That is a civil way to act. |
| 2. These are fine apples. | 5. These are my books. |
| 3. This is my opinion. | 6. Those are your books. |

Find the demonstrative pronouns and the demonstrative adjectives in the following sentences. Tell what noun each demonstrative adjective modifies, and how each demonstrative pronoun is used.

1. That caused a laugh.
2. Where did you find this?
3. I found these toys in the garden.
4. This boy is my brother.
5. That's a good horse.
6. Look at those boys.

7. What game are these boys playing?
8. That is the right spirit.
9. Is this the way to San Francisco?
10. These cakes are delicious.
11. Are those the ones you were looking for?
12. That vase was a gift.
13. Those men are Arctic explorers.
14. That is his name.
15. This is the clay from which dishes are made.

Three errors are commonly made in the use of demonstratives. People who have not studied grammar, or who do not apply the principles of grammar to their everyday language sometimes say *these kind* and *those kind*; as, "I don't like those kind of flowers." This error is easy to correct if you notice the number of the noun *kind* and of the demonstratives *these* and *those*. *Kind* is singular and so takes a singular demonstrative. You should say *this kind* and *that kind*. With the plural form, *kinds*, use the plural demonstrative; as, *these kinds* and *those kinds*. In such instances remember that the demonstrative adjective must agree in number with the noun it modifies.

Are *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* used correctly in these sentences? How do you know?

1. This kind of weed is more common than that kind.
2. These kinds of weeds are more common than those kinds.
3. That kind of candy is good.
4. Those kinds of candy are good.

It is important to notice that a statement such as *this kind of a horse* is incorrect. *This kind of a horse* means *this*

kind of one horse. We should say *this kind of horse.* *This sort of a* is also incorrect; say *this sort of entertainment.*

Explain why it would be incorrect to use the article *a* after *kind of* in the following sentences.

1. This kind of book is the best.
2. That kind of stove does not give much heat.

A second error due to a lack of knowledge of grammar is the use of *them* when the demonstratives should be used. People who have studied grammar know that *them* is a personal pronoun and so cannot modify a noun. What part of speech does modify nouns? What is the case of *them*? Is it correct to use *them* as a subject? What is the form of the third person plural of the personal pronoun which may be used as a subject? What is the case of this form?

Which are the correct forms in the following sentences and why?

- (Them, Those, These) books are mine.
 (Them, These, Those, They) were happy days.
 (Them, These, Those, They) are yours.

The third error arises when we add *here* and *there* to demonstratives; as, "These here books are mine." We should not use *here* with *this* and *these*, nor *there* with *that* and *those*. *Here* and *there* do not add anything to the meaning of the demonstratives and so are unnecessary.

Always use the singular demonstrative adjectives (*this* and *that*) with singular nouns.

Always use the plural demonstrative adjectives (*these* and *those*) with plural nouns.

Them should never be used as a demonstrative.

Exercises. A. Write the following sentences correctly. In each case give the grammatical reason for your choice; as,

I use *these* because it is a demonstrative adjective, plural number, agreeing in number with the noun *shoes*.

1. (Them, These) shoes are mine.
2. Isn't this an odd kind of (a stone, stone).
3. Where are (them, those) nuts which you put away?
4. I don't like (these, this) kind of biscuits.
5. I really like (those, that) kind much better.
6. What kind of (a dress, dress) are you planning for Easter?
7. (These, These here) narrow skirts are hard to walk in.
8. (This, These) kind of bread is not what I ordered.
9. What kind of (gun, a gun) did your father buy?
10. (Them, Those) flowers are very rare.
11. What was the name of (that, that there) book?
12. I think (this, this here) is better.
13. (Those, Those there) colors are too bright.
14. What kind of (a looking, looking) man was he?

84. Parsing Nouns and Pronouns

You have learned that nouns and pronouns may be classified according to kind, person, number, gender, case, and use. When you classify a noun or pronoun according to kind, person, number, gender, case, and use, you are said to *parse* the noun or pronoun. If the antecedent of the pronoun is expressed it should be pointed out and the agreement with it stated.

Exercises. A. Parse all the nouns and personal pronouns in the following sentences in this manner:

He is a personal pronoun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject of the verb *gave*;

Mary is a proper noun, third person, singular number, feminine gender, accusative case, object of the preposition *to*.

After you have parsed all the nouns and personal pronouns, point out all the possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives, and tell how each is used.

1. He gave mine to Mary.
2. They left some of these purchases on the counter.
3. She invited us to her party.
4. Alexander and I are twins.
5. From a peak in Darien they saw the Pacific.
6. We saw him in the garden with his mother.
7. Their mother scolded them for not obeying her.
8. We have studied our lessons well.
9. My sister has my music. This song isn't mine.
10. Mr. Barto did not recognize me.
11. You and Rebecca are invited too.
12. The book is not here. I have taken it to the library.
13. These rubbers are hers. Where are yours?
14. Here is our car. Where is theirs?
15. They will ask her to give an encore.

B. What facts should you tell about nouns when you parse them? about pronouns? Parse the nouns and the personal pronouns in these sentences. Point out all the possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns and tell how each is used.

1. The soldiers bade them all farewell.
2. We invited our friends to go with us.
3. Can you see us?
4. Please thank him for his kindness.
5. They found him hiding in the barn.
6. We took the huckleberries to town and sold **them**.
7. Your cows frightened Jennie and me.

8. I left my knife under the tree.
9. I gave her a copy of Browning's poems.
10. This is where Washington bade his soldiers farewell.
11. The blue cap is his. Mine is brown.

85. Appositives

What words do you find in these sentences which, although they add to the meaning of the sentences, are not really essential? Read the sentences omitting these words.

1. A new baker, Mr. Jones, has opened a store.
2. Henry loved his friend, James.
3. Our largest state, Texas, lies north of Mexico.

In the first sentence the proper noun *Mr. Jones* explains who the baker is. The noun *Mr. Jones* is called an **appositive**, and is said to be *in apposition* with the noun *baker*. What word in the second sentence explains the noun *friend*? What do we call *James* as it is used here? What is the appositive in the third sentence? With what word is it in apposition?

An appositive is a noun or a pronoun used to explain a noun or a pronoun that denotes the same person, place, or thing.

Notice the punctuation required by appositives.

An appositive is usually set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas.

Now read the following sentences. Do you find any groups of words which are used to explain nouns or pronouns denoting the same person, place, or thing? Point them out.

1. Howard Brown, the strongest man on our team,
was injured.
2. We, you and I, will do it.

3. We shall read "Quentin Durward," a book by Sir Walter Scott.

You see from these sentences that groups of words are sometimes used as appositives. They may be spoken of as **appositive phrases**. In the first sentence the appositive phrase is *the strongest man on the team*. These words are in apposition with the proper noun *Howard Brown*. Notice that in the second sentence pronouns are used as appositives. With what word are they in apposition? What part of speech is this word? Point out the appositive phrase in the third sentence. With what word is it in apposition? How are the appositive phrases in these three sentences set off from the rest of the sentence? Formulate a rule for the punctuation of appositive phrases.

How is *housekeeper* used in the first sentence below? How is it used in the second sentence? How do you know?

1. Anna is a neat housekeeper.
2. Anna, the housekeeper, is very neat.

Notice that an appositive is always placed beside the noun or pronoun which it explains.

Remember that an appositive should explain or add something to the meaning of the noun or pronoun with which it is in apposition. In the sentence "John he went to town," the pronoun *he* stands for the noun *John* and consequently gives no information in addition to that already contained in the noun *John*. The pronoun *he* is therefore unnecessary, and should not be used. Sentences which contain unnecessary words, such as *he* in the sentence just given, are said to be *redundant*. This sentence should be simply "John went to town."

Exercises. *A.* Some of these sentences are correct and some are incorrect. Some of the incorrect sentences are not properly punctuated, and some are redundant. Write all of the sentences correctly, giving the reason for any change.

1. Jenny Lind, the great singer, was a very beautiful girl.
2. Marshall Foch, the French general has many decorations and medals.
3. The Roman god Jupiter was the same as the Greek god Zeus.
4. Mark Twain, the American humorist, is the author of *Tom Sawyer*.
5. Nero a famous Roman emperor was a tyrant.
6. Homer the Greek poet was blind.
7. Richard III king of England was an ambitious man.
8. Some men they stood on a platform.
9. The boys they wear little red caps.
10. Harry and I we were crowded into the end seat.
11. Mary she has two words wrong.
12. The scoutmaster he killed a snake.

B. Find the appositives and appositive phrases in these sentences, and point out the noun or pronoun with which each is in apposition. Are any of these sentences redundant?

1. Father took a picture of us boys in the boat.
2. The commander, General Pershing, went to the front.
3. We girls like ice cream.
4. The tropical fruits, oranges and lemons, grow in California.
5. Ruth invited my cousin, Frances Adams, to the social.
6. Old Glory, our national flag, flies over the city.
7. Our first president, George Washington, died in 1799.

8. Henry he is my cousin.
9. We boys formed a basket ball team.
10. Company C, the men from Tulsa, left the camp.

C. Write ten sentences containing appositives or appositive phrases. Punctuate them correctly.

86. Review—Verbs

Point out the subject substantive and the predicate verb in each of the following sentences. Tell whether each verb is transitive, linking, or complete, and point out the object of each transitive verb, and the predicate noun, pronoun, or adjective following each linking verb.

1. Hamlin Garland has written many stories about the Middle West.
2. The field was a mass of yellow daffodils.
3. In his youth Lincoln split rails for a living.
4. The man at the window is he.
5. Up went the flags and banners of crimson hue.
6. It was a busy scene.
7. The dog wagged his tail for joy.
8. The wind was blowing the sleet and rain against the windows.
9. On one side of the roof was the nest of a sparrow.
10. Polly was afraid of the cross dog.
11. Janet bought a box of pop corn.
12. He was a timid little fellow.
13. The boy dashed through the crowd.
14. We saw the island of Cuba directly ahead.
15. They finally reached the other shore.
16. Have you ever seen Washington's monument at Washington?

87. Review—Nouns and Pronouns

Exercises. A. What facts should you tell about a noun when you parse it? Parse all the nouns in the following sentences, according to the directions given in Lesson 84.

1. Martin is very generous to his mother.
2. He is a generous boy.
3. The general inspired his soldiers with courage.
4. The Chinese eat much rice and very little bread.
5. France is one of the republics in Europe.
6. Aunt Martha invited Robert and me to visit her before Christmas.
7. Helen of Troy was a very beautiful woman.
8. St. George killed the dragon.
9. Daniel Boone was a mighty hunter.
10. Why are the roses so red this year?
11. Galahad was without fear and without reproach.
12. The sun shines bright in my old Kentucky home.
13. Where is the King of Spain?
14. There are many quaint houses in Plymouth.
15. High on the mountain perches a little cottage.

B. What facts should you tell about a pronoun when you parse it? Parse all the personal pronouns in the following sentences, according to the directions in Lesson 84. Point out all the possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives and tell how each is used.

1. We saw them on our way to school.
2. They watched the soldiers take their aim.
3. Your composition is better than mine.
4. I like him; he has often helped me.
5. It is he; I recognize his voice.
6. Where are they now?
7. He is putting red tile on the roof.

8. I think their new house is pretty.
9. The little boy put his head down on her lap.
10. The trees in my yard are blossoming.

88. Correct Use of Adjectives and Adverbs

What parts of speech do adjectives modify? What parts of speech do adverbs modify? Adjectives and adverbs are often confused, but if you remember that adjectives modify nouns or pronouns and that adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, you can easily tell which to use.

You may, for instance, be in doubt whether to use an adjective or an adverb in such sentences as:

1. She sings (*beautiful*, *beautifully*).
2. She looks (*beautiful*, *beautifully*).

In the first of these sentences you must use the adverb *beautifully* because you wish to describe the action expressed by the verb *sings*. But in the second sentence the predicate adjective *beautiful* is correct because you wish to describe the subject *she*.

In all such sentences, use the adverb if you wish to describe the action of the verb; use the adjective if you wish to describe the subject. Why?

In referring to a person's state of health, use the adjective *well* (meaning in good health), rather than the adjective *good*; as, "She feels *well*." In this sentence *well* is not an adverb, but is an adjective, modifying the subject *she*. "She feels *good*" means, "She feels well-behaved."

Exercises. A. What part of speech is each of the italicized words in these sentences. Show that each of these words is used correctly.

1. It tasted *sweet*.
He tasted it *cautiously*.
2. The boy grew *rapidly*.
The boy grew *tired*.
3. His mother looked *sad*.
His mother looked *sadly* at him.
4. He appeared *suddenly*.
He appeared *unhappy*.
5. The box sounded *hollow*.
The bell sounded *loudly*.
6. The dog smelled it *immediately*.
The rose smelled *sweet*.

B. What questions do adverbs answer? Which of the words in the following list are adjectives? Which are adverbs? From these examples how would you say that adverbs are usually formed from adjectives?

bad	badly	nice	nicely
sure	surely	terrible	terribly
near	nearly	quick	quickly
slow	slowly	awful	awfully

Write sentences illustrating the correct use of each adjective and adverb in the list above.

89. Variety and Vividness—Adjectives

Read these two paragraphs carefully and compare them. Which one gives you a more vivid sense of the gloom and mystery of the room which it describes? Why?

I

I found myself in a room, the windows of which were at a distance from the floor. Although gleams of light made their way through the panes, it was impossible to see very clearly.

Draperies hung upon the walls. Books and instruments lay scattered about, but failed to give any vitality to the scene. I felt that I breathed an atmosphere of sorrow. An air of gloom hung over and pervaded all.

II

The room in which I found myself was very large and lofty. The windows were long, narrow, and pointed, and at so vast a distance from the black oaken floor as to be altogether inaccessible from within. Feeble gleams of encrimsoned light made their way through the trellised panes, and served to render sufficiently distinct the more prominent objects around; the eye, however, struggled in vain to reach the remoter angles of the chamber, or the recesses of the vaulted and fretted ceiling. Dark draperies hung upon the walls. The general furniture was profuse, comfortless, antique, and tattered. Many books and musical instruments lay scattered about, but failed to give any vitality to the scene. I felt that I breathed an atmosphere of sorrow. An air of stern, deep, and irredeemable gloom hung over and pervaded all.

The second of these paragraphs is taken from a story called "The Fall of the House of Usher" by Edgar Allan Poe. In the first paragraph all the descriptive adjectives of the original description have been omitted. Notice that the last sentence of the first paragraph is more vivid than any other in this paragraph, because the noun *gloom* and the verbs *hung* and *pervaded* are specific and well chosen. What does the word *pervaded* mean? What words occur in the last sentence of the second paragraph which do not occur in the first paragraph? What does each one mean? Point out all the adjectives in the second paragraph which make this picture more vivid than the first. Which words in this paragraph are most suggestive of gloom?

Exercises. A. Make a list of all the descriptive adjectives in the paragraph from "The Fall of the House of Usher." Look up each one in a large dictionary. Write beside each adjective the definition which best fits its use in this paragraph, and write underneath the synonyms given in the dictionary; as,

feeble: deficient in strength; not bright.

syn.: weak

B. Write ten sentences containing appropriate descriptive adjectives. Try to make each sentence vivid. Perhaps some of the following words will give you ideas for your sentences:

boat	train	road	volcano
sunlight	hill	miles away	cyclone
moon	thunder	house	ocean
lake	crowd	station	field

90. Comparison of Adjectives

What are the two large classes into which adjectives may be divided? Descriptive adjectives, such as *white*, *large*, *old*, *new*, and *beautiful*, indicate qualities of persons, places, or things, and it is possible to *compare* qualities.

In the following sentence, notice the forms of the adjective *old*:

The *old* house on the corner is *older* than the one next door; in fact it is the *oldest* house in the neighborhood.

Old, *older*, and *oldest* denote different degrees of the same quality.

The adjective *old* simply means that from the appearance

of the house it would be called an old house. That is, it is not a new house. The statement that it is an old house does not involve a comparison of its age with that of any other house.

The form *older*, however, shows that the age of the old house has been compared with the age of the house next door, and the conclusion is reached that the old house was built before its neighbor.

The form *oldest* is used to show that of all the houses in the neighborhood the old house was built first.

The change in the form of an adjective to express different degrees of a quality is called **comparison**.

Read the following sentences and tell which of the italicized words indicate no comparison, which of them denote the comparison of two objects, and which of them indicate the comparison of three or more objects.

1. John has a *young* dog.
2. Anna's dog is *younger* than John's.
3. Robert's dog is the *youngest* of the three.

1. This is a *beautiful* dress.
2. Mary's dress is *more beautiful* than this.
3. Winifred's dress is the *most beautiful* of all.

1. Timothy is *generous*.
2. Clarence is *less generous*.
3. Henry is the *least generous* boy in class.

The simplest form of an adjective, which denotes no comparison, is called the *positive degree*.

The positive degree of an adjective is its simplest form, and expresses a quality without the idea of comparison.

Young, beautiful, and generous are in the positive degree.

When we wish to express a greater or a less degree of a quality, we use the *comparative degree* of the adjective.

The comparative degree of an adjective denotes a greater or a less degree of a quality.

The comparative degree of an adjective is usually formed by adding *er* to the positive degree; as, *young, younger*. With adjectives of several syllables the adverb *more* is used with the positive degree to express the comparative; as, *beautiful, more beautiful*. To express a less degree we use the adverb *less* with the positive degree; as, *generous, less generous*.

When we wish to express the greatest or the least degree of a quality we use the *superlative degree* of the adjective.

The superlative degree of an adjective denotes the greatest or the least degree of a quality.

The superlative degree of an adjective is usually formed by adding *est* to the positive degree; as, *young, youngest*. With adjectives of several syllables the adverb *most* is used with the positive degree to express the superlative; as, *beautiful, most beautiful*. To express the least degree we use the adverb *least* with the positive degree; as, *least generous*.

When we compare two objects, we use the comparative degree; as, "It is the *larger* of the two." It would be incorrect to say, "It is the *largest* of the two." When we compare more than two objects, we use the superlative degree; as, "It is the *largest* of the six houses."

In comparing two objects always use the comparative degree.

In comparing more than two objects, use the superlative degree.

There are a few adjectives which are compared irregularly. Some of these are:

<i>Positive Degree</i>	<i>Comparative Degree</i>	<i>Superlative Degree</i>
good, well	better	best
bad, ill	worse	worst
little	less	least
much, many	more	most
near	nearer	nearest, next
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
late	later, latter	latest, last

Some adjectives, such as *perfect*, *dead*, *double*, *horizontal*, *perpendicular*, and *supreme*, cannot be compared. Anything that is *dead* cannot be made more *dead*.

Exercises. A. Compare the following adjectives rapidly:

small	green	kind
black	bad	many
sweet	soft	thin
good	much	pretty
wonderful	troublesome	mischievous

B. Write five sentences, using the adjectives in Exercise A in the comparative degree; five, using them in the superlative degree.

C. Point out the adjectives in the sentences below; state the degree of each, and tell what each modifies.

1. Colorado has higher mountains than New York.
2. My flowers are purple, white, and pink.
3. The most beautiful roses grow in that large greenhouse.
4. No one has been more courageous than Washington.
5. Those poplars are the tallest that I have seen.
6. No man can climb a steeper mountain than this.

7. Dickens's *Tale of Two Cities* is the most interesting book I have ever read.
8. This is a better apple than yours.
9. That is the best work you have done.
10. A dog is a faithful friend.

Write fifteen sentences, each containing one or more adjectives. Tell what noun each adjective modifies and give its comparison.

91. Comparison of Adverbs

The comparison of adverbs is similar to the comparison of adjectives. The sentences below contain the positive, the comparative, and the superlative degrees of the adverb *early*:

1. I go to school *early*.
2. I go to school *earlier* than Jack does.
3. I go to school the *earliest* of all the pupils.

Some adverbs are compared by adding *more* and *most* or *less* and *least* to the positive degree.

<i>Positive Degree</i>	<i>Comparative Degree</i>	<i>Superlative Degree</i>
carefully	more carefully	most carefully
eagerly	less eagerly	least eagerly

Some adverbs are compared irregularly:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
badly, ill	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
much	more	most
well	better	best

Some adverbs cannot be compared; as, *too*, *very*, *not*, and *so*.

Exercises. A. Use orally in sentences the adverbs given above, and tell the degree of each.

B. Point out the adverbs in the sentences below, state the degree of each, and give the other two degrees.

1. Eunice sings more sweetly than Elsie.
2. The bird sings very joyously.
3. Run as quickly as you can.
4. They approached less rapidly than he.
5. They lived most happily together.
6. They walked slowly.
7. You play that very badly.
8. She went farther than we.
9. The lark caroled merrily.
10. The boy worked faithfully.

C. Write ten sentences similar to those above. State the degree of each adverb, and give the other two degrees.

92. Variety and Vividness—Adverbs

Adverbs, like adjectives, help to make our language vivid. Read the following sentences and tell the exact meaning of each adverb. Then explain under what circumstances each of the adverbs in these sentences might appropriately be used:

1. He had followed every order (silently, doggedly, carelessly).
2. The men grumbled (fiercely, quietly, loudly) over their work.
3. They (reverently, sadly, boldly) spread the flag over the body.
4. I looked (sharply, anxiously, longingly) behind me.
5. Robin (cautiously, angrily, boldly) opened the door.
6. Heidi waited (curiously, laughingly, fearfully) for what would happen next.

7. (Suddenly, Slowly, Feebly) the doctor raised his hand.
8. The sailor ran (wildly, hopefully, lightly) toward the fire.
9. Marcia walked (calmly, proudly, falteringly) into the palace.
10. Hawkins knocked (violently, stealthily, joyously) on the door.

93. Review—Adjectives and Adverbs

Point out the adjectives and the adverbs in the following sentences; state the degree of each, and give the other two degrees.

1. The tall tree beside the dusty road provided most welcome shade for the weary traveler.
2. The south wind blows more gently than the north wind.
3. The laborer who works the most diligently of the three is the happiest.
4. Several large boys from a neighboring village came slowly down the street.
5. Tom Sawyer found himself in more funny situations than any other boy.
6. The April sun shone brightly, and a balmy wind blew softly from the south.
7. The soft white snowflakes fell silently in the stillness of the winter night.
8. We can work more quickly when we are less sleepy.

94. Short Talks

Prepare short talks on two of these subjects. What rules must you observe if your "short talk" is to be satisfactory either to you or to your teacher?

1. The Strangest-Looking Animal I Have Ever Seen
2. A Peaceful Scene

3. A Terrible Storm
4. A Well-Kept Garden
5. A Snowstorm
6. My Favorite Tree
7. The Trained Elephants in the Circus
8. A Beautiful Bird

Words Often Mispronounced. Below is a list of words which are often mispronounced. Look up these words in your dictionary, divide them into syllables, and accent them properly. Be able to pronounce these words correctly and use each one in a sentence.

address	advertisement	illustrate	cement
admirable	pianist	recess	hospitable
adult	exquisite	inquiry	apparatus
ally	idea	government	automobile

95. How to Argue

We must learn to discriminate between disputing and arguing. When we dispute, we are indignant, or perhaps angry; we talk loudly, and contradict each other. We have often heard two boys dispute somewhat as follows:

“We have a better school than yours!”

“You have not.”

“We have, too!”

“I’ll bet you!”

“Aw! Go on! We have, too!”

Neither of these boys has given a reason for thinking his school is the better one. Each has merely contradicted the other. To have argued skillfully, one boy should have proved for instance that his school had better teachers, and a better ball team, and that the building was larger and

better built. Good argument *proves* a point by giving convincing reasons.

A carefully arranged argument is really a form of explanation. We explain *why* we believe as we do. The object of argument should be to seek the truth. We may win our opponents to our side, or we may be won over to their side.

Remember that to win others to our side we must have *convincing reasons*, we must *state them clearly*, and we must *answer our opponents' arguments*.

Exercise. To train yourselves in argumentation, make outlines upon the following questions, listing (1) the points in favor of the question, (2) the points against it, and (3) the points which appeal to you.

1. Great explorers have been more useful to America than great warriors.
2. It is more important for girls to learn to cook than to learn to sew.
3. Football is a more interesting game to watch than baseball.
4. A knowledge of geography is more useful than a knowledge of history.
5. Children are busier today than they were in Colonial days.
6. It is more desirable to be a doctor than a merchant.
7. One can get more pleasure by saving money than by spending it.

96. Word Forms

Choose the correct word in these sentences, and in each case give the grammatical reason for your choice:

1. (Surely, Sure) you are on the right path.
2. It (doesn't, don't) make (any, no) difference to me.

3. (There's, Theirs) much moisture in the air.
4. I (shall, will) go shopping on Monday. (Futurity)
5. (They, Them) and (we, us) had only one holiday.
6. You (sure, surely) (was, were) mistaken about John and (he, him).
7. Have you (got a, a) pencil?
8. Both of (we, us) girls (was, were) late the next morning.
9. My sisters (has, have) never (rode, ridden) on a pony.
10. (Its, It's) a shame that (its, it's) leg is hurt.
11. They have (wrote, written) the letters (themselves, themselves.)
12. The teacher asked Joseph and (I, me) to take the note.
13. He ought to have (ridden, rode) more slowly.
14. (Was, Were) you the winner?
15. Two of (we, us) boys (has, have) (to, two, too) take the test (to, two, too.)
16. (It's, its) (there's, theirs).
17. Every person at the rehearsal lost (his, their) temper.

97. Review—Verbs

What is a transitive verb? All verbs that do not require objects are intransitive verbs. What two kinds of intransitive verbs are there? Review Lessons 78 and 79.

What are the various forms of the verb *be* in the present, past, and future tenses?

Exercises. A. Find the predicate verbs in the following sentences. Tell whether each is transitive or intransitive, and give its tense, person, and number in this way:

Likes is a transitive verb, present tense, third person, singular number, agreeing in person and number with its subject, *man*.

1. A business man likes promptness.
2. We spent the summer in New England.

3. All winter part of the wreck lay on the sand.
4. These children will sing to-morrow night.
5. There are many varieties of grapes.
6. When shall you go?
7. Who is he?
8. We are friends.
9. The postman brings our mail every day.
10. None of the men had an automobile.

B. Point out the object of each of the transitive verbs in the sentences above. Tell which of the intransitive verbs are complete and which are linking, and point out the predicate word after each linking verb.

98. Review—Subject and Predicate

Exercises. *A.* Point out the subject substantive, the predicate verb, and the direct object or predicate word in each of the following sentences:

1. Mr. Lodge is a kind neighbor.
2. Franklin made candles for his living.
3. Girls usually are good housekeepers.
4. The brave Miles Standish defended the Pilgrim settlement from the Indians' attack.
5. Pocahontas saved the life of John Smith.
6. On his tramps through the woods he found berries.
7. It is I.
8. Babies sleep soundly in the fresh air.
9. Robins hunt worms for their young.
10. This is she.
11. Mme. Forester's diamond necklace was very valuable.
12. The natives of Mexico mine silver in the Sierra Madre Mountains.
13. The American flag is red, white, and blue.

14. The cadet corp unfurled the flag at the sound of the bugle.
15. The houses of the workmen are humble.

B. Give the case and the reason for the case of all the nouns and pronouns in the sentences in Exercise A.

C. Find all the modifiers in the sentences in Exercise A, state whether they are adjectives, adverbs, or adjectival or adverbial phrases, and tell what each modifies.

99. Review—Sentences

Exercises. *A.* Classify the following sentences as declarative or interrogative; as exclamatory or non-exclamatory; and as simple, compound, or complex.

1. If I tell you my secret, will you keep it?
2. Please talk more clearly.
3. How jolly he looks when he smiles!
4. This was the story that he heard.
5. You must work constantly if you expect to keep the weeds out.
6. Bring me the book of recipes when you return.
7. That is a cross old dog!
8. Is this some kind of tropical bird?
9. Dutch boys and girls enjoy skating all winter long.
10. The men were peaceful for a little while; but soon they separated into two angry groups.

B. Classify the following sentences as simple, compound, or complex. State whether the clauses are coördinate or subordinate, and if subordinate, tell how they are used:

1. These shoes, which were made in New York, have worn well.

2. While I was in California, I saw many beautiful olive groves.
3. Some of the redwood trees in California are enormous, and many visitors make special trips to see them.
4. Labrador is in the same latitude as England, yet its climate is much colder.
5. He left before Uncle Jack came.
6. The geraniums that grow in California climb like vines to the second-story windows.

100. Test A. Grammar

PART I

Directions. At the right of each incomplete statement below are three words, only one of which correctly completes the statement. Write the five sentences, completing them correctly.

1. A noun is a word that names, describes, points out
2. A noun that means only
 one is plural, common, singular
3. A noun that means any
 one of a class of things is plural, common, singular
4. A noun can be modified
 by an adjective, adverb, verb
5. A proper noun always
 contains a hyphen, apostrophe, capital

PART II

Directions. Write the numbers 1 to 10 in a column on your paper. Each question below is to be answered by "Yes" or "No." Write the correct answer for each question after the corresponding number on your paper.

1. Can an adjective modify a noun?
2. Can an adjective modify an adverb?
3. Can an adverb modify an adjective?
4. Do adjectives describe?
5. Do adjectives point out?
6. Can an adjective ever begin with a capital?
7. Does an adjectival phrase modify a noun?
8. Does an adjectival phrase modify a verb?
9. Does an adjectival phrase do the work of an adjective?
10. Are adjectives always found in the subject of the sentence?

PART III

Directions. Copy the ten items listed below. After each write an example of that item taken from one of the three sentences *a*, *b*, and *c*.

- a.* The Christmas dinner was the best he had ever eaten.
b. He can run to that post.
c. Mary and I went to the circus.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. A simple subject | 6. A proper noun |
| 2. A simple predicate | 7. A verb phrase |
| 3. A complete subject | 8. A helping verb |
| 4. A complete predicate | 9. A pronoun as a subject |
| 5. A proper adjective | 10. An adverbial phrase |

101. Test B. Proper Adjectives

Directions. Copy the proper nouns. Opposite each write the proper adjective that may be derived from it. Example: *America, American.*

- | | |
|-----------------|------------|
| 1. Philadelphia | 5. Boston |
| 2. Greece | 6. Mexico |
| 3. Canada | 7. Brazil |
| 4. Belgi | 8. Denmark |

102. Test C. Recall Test

Directions. Write the numbers 1 to 10 in a column on your paper. Opposite No. 1 write the word or expression needed to complete sentence 1 and make it a true statement. Do the same with the other statements.

1. Every proper noun must begin with a
2. A group of sentences related to one idea is called a
3. "The Star-Spangled Banner" was written by
4. The salutation and the complimentary close of a letter should begin with a
5. The day of the month in a date should be separated from the year by a
6. The titles of books, poems, stories, if they form parts of sentences, should be inclosed in
7. The author of "Robinson Crusoe" is
8. The words *I* and *O* are written with
9. An abbreviation should be followed by a
10. A sentence that tells something is called a sentence.

103. Test D. Word Meaning

Directions. Write the numbers 1 to 13 in a column on your paper. Read the first expression below and select from the four words at the right (*kin, citizen, neighbor, friend*) the *one* word which means the same as the expression. Write this word after No. 1 on your paper. Do all the other items in the test in the same way.

1. A person who lives near another. (*kin, citizen, neighbor, friend*)
2. To attack the reasons of others. (*prove, quarrel, dispute, argue*)

3. To arrange without definite order. (*catalogue, list, unite, name*)
4. To speak or act against. (*promote, oppose, advance, foster*)
5. A measure of land. (*yard, square, acre, liter*)
6. To recognize a disease from its symptoms. (*judge, study, operate, diagnose*)
7. Crafty, sly, or artful. (*cunning, foolish, hateful, enthusiastic*)
8. Short or concise. (*thin, brief, small, insignificant*)
9. A kind of flower peculiar to dry places. (*moss, cactus, fern, clover*)
10. A serious accident, or a misfortune. (*event, clash, disaster, trouble*)
11. To cut into parts, to separate. (*deal, slice, sever, divide*)
12. Polite or well-bred. (*genteel, kind, agreeable, noble*)
13. Any wrong or damage done to another. (*disadvantage, blemish, impairment, injury*)

104. Test E. Matching Test

Directions. Copy the parts of speech in column 1. In front of each part of speech write the number of the sentence in column 2 in which that part of speech is italicized.

1	2
.....noun	1. He pays his rent <i>by</i> the month.
.....verb	2. He is very <i>tall</i> .
.....adjective	3. <i>She</i> is my sister.
.....preposition	4. The <i>boy</i> is here.
.....pronoun	5. The ship sails <i>rapidly</i> .
.....adverb	6. We <i>went</i> very fast.
.....conjunction	7. <i>Ouch!</i> I cut my foot.
.....interjection	8. He owned a farm <i>and</i> raised corn and wheat.

PART TWO

105. Test A. Selection Test*

Directions. There is an error or omission in each of the sentences in Part I of this test. Copy these sentences, correcting or completing them as the case demands. In Part II you will find rules (lettered *A*, *B*, *C*, etc.) which apply to your corrections or completions. At the left of each sentence on your paper, place the proper letter to show which rule you have followed in making the correction. Each rule is to be used only once.

PART I

- 1. "The Village Blacksmith" was written by long-fellow.
- 2. Just as I reached the wharf the boat pulled out.
- 3. The moon cannot be seen tonight
- 4. Paris is a european city.
- 5. yours respectfully,
Silver, Burdett and Company
- 6. Shakespeare said to thine own self be true.
- 7. A letter came to Mr Jones on Albany St, Boston.
- 8. We are to have an examination on thursday.
- 9. I was born on October 6 1918.
- 10. Where are you going to spend your vacation
- 11. I havent seen you for a long time.

***To the teacher:** These tests supplement those at the end of the preceding year. It is suggested that both sets of tests be used for diagnostic purposes, or as many of the tests as are necessary to meet the needs of the class.

-12. Mr. Hiram Ricker
my dear sir :
-13. The truth is that i have lost my way.
-14. who is president of the United States?
-15. at the doorway of his wigwam
sat the ancient Arrow-maker,
in the land of the Dacotahs,
making arrowheads of jasper.

PART II

A. Place a comma after a long subordinate clause when the subordinate clause precedes the principal clause.

B. Begin the first word of every line of poetry with a capital.

C. In contractions the apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of a letter or letters.

D. Place a question mark at the end of an interrogative sentence.

E. The first word of every sentence should begin with a capital.

F. The pronoun *I* is always a capital letter.

G. The first part of the salutation of a letter should begin with a capital.

H. Begin all proper names with a capital.

I. The comma is used to separate parts of dates.

J. Place quotation marks before and after a direct quotation.

K. Begin a proper adjective with a capital.

L. The first word of the complimentary close of a letter should begin with a capital.

M. The names of months and days of the week should begin with capitals.

N. A period should be used after all abbreviations.

O. Place a period at the end of a declarative sentence.

106. Test B. Completion Test

Directions. Copy the following sentences, filling the blank space in each with the word or words needed to make the statement correct or complete.

1. A group of words expressing a complete thought is called a
2. A declarative sentence is followed by a
3. A possessive noun is used to show
4. are used to separate words in a series.
5. A sentence that is used to ask a question is called an sentence.
6. The exact words of a speaker should be inclosed by
7. A should be used to begin every line of poetry.
8. When *yes* or *no* is used as part of an answer to a question, it is separated from the rest of the sentence by a
9. The indefinite pronouns point out less clearly than do the demonstrative pronouns *this*,, *these*, and
10. The part of the sentence that tells what is said about the subject is called the

107. Test C. True-False Test

Directions. Write the numbers 1 to 20 in a column on your paper. Plan for two other columns headed *True* and *False*, as follows:

	<i>True</i>	<i>False</i>
1.		
2.		

Some of the following statements are true and some are false. If a statement is true, place a (×) in the *True* column opposite the proper number. If a statement is false, place a (×) in the *False* column.

1. In the sentence — *There were many kinds of fruits lying on the table* — the complete subject is *fruits*.
2. The sentence — *May I get the ink* — should be followed by a period.
3. A sentence that asks a question is called an imperative sentence.
4. In the sentence — *He ran home* — *home* is an adverb.
5. In the sentence — *We crossed the river* — *river* is the direct object.
6. In the sentence — *His mother was very angry* — *angry* is a predicate noun.
7. In the sentence — *You may write to my principal, Mr. Black* — a comma is properly used after *principal* because *Mr. Black* is an appositive.
8. In the sentence — *New York is larger than any other city in the United States* — *other* is properly used with the comparative degree.
9. In the sentence — *John threw the ball* — the word *ball* is used as a predicate noun.
10. The name of the person addressed should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas.
11. In the sentence — *Your writing is plainer than mine* — *plainer* is an adjective in the superlative degree.
12. In the sentence — *It could never have happened before* — the predicate verb is *could have happened*.
13. In the sentence — *Mother gave me a dollar* — *me* is a direct object.
14. A word which completes the predicate and names the subject is called a predicate noun.

15. In the following sentence — *The long circus parade marched slowly by* — *circus* is used as an adjective.
16. In the sentence — *Close the door* — the subject is understood to be *you*.
17. In the sentence — *The river flows through a valley — through a valley* is an adjective phrase.
18. In the sentence — *Louise sings well* — *well* is an adverb.
19. A group of words having a subject and predicate and doing the work of one word is called a phrase.
20. The superlative degree of an adjective is used when comparing more than two things.

108. Test D. Use of Dictionary

To the teacher: Speed is very important in this test. Be sure that all pupils start at the same time. Each pupil should hand in his paper as soon as the test is completed. Record on each paper the number of minutes spent on the test. Make up similar tests and use them until the class attains facility in finding words in the dictionary.

Directions. This test shows how quickly you can look up words in the dictionary. First copy the words on a sheet of paper. Look up each word in the dictionary and write opposite it on your paper the number of the page on which you found it. As soon as you have finished the last word, hand in your paper.

hemlock	carton	plague	frolic
epic	judge	defeat	inhale
avoid	gipsy	letter	beyond

109. Test E. Letter Writing

Write a business letter to some firm, such as the Curtis Publishing Company, applying for an agency to sell their

magazines. Be sure to write the heading, salutation, body, complimentary close, and signature. Write plainly the full address that you would put on the envelope. Put your own address in the corner of the envelope.

110. Speech Improvement

The success of your language work will depend not only upon what you learn in school but also upon what application you make of this knowledge to your everyday speech.

Whenever you are aware that you have made a mistake, you should correct it immediately. If you are not certain how to do so, think whether there is a rule which will help you. If you cannot recall how to correct your error, refer to this book at the first opportunity and practice repeating the correct form. By dint of faithful practice, the use of the correct form will in time become a habit. If you have a tendency to use certain incorrect or awkward expressions, make a list of them. Correct the incorrect ones and improve the awkward ones; then use the correct or improved forms habitually.

111. Debating

A debate is an argument held before an audience and decided by judges or by a vote of the audience itself. Topics for debate are usually stated in this form :

Resolved, That the occupation of doctor is preferable to that of merchant.

The topic for a debate, when stated in this form, is called a *resolution*. Topics selected should be of such a nature that sound arguments may be presented both *for* and *against* them. The debate may be between two persons

or between two opposing sides, one in favor of the resolution and the other opposed to it. The *affirmative side* speaks in favor of the resolution, and the *negative side* speaks against it.

Rules for Debate. When a debate is between two opposing sides of several persons each, it is subject to the following or similar rules :

1. The leader of the affirmative side, who speaks first, states the question and then presents his arguments in favor of the resolution. He is followed by the first speaker for the negative side, next by one on the affirmative, and so on until the last speaker on the negative side has spoken. Each speaker must keep within the same time limit.

2. Time is then allowed for each side to withdraw and consider points of the opposing side for the purpose of disproving them. The affirmative side will confer on arguments which the negative side has given, and will attempt to disprove them. The negative side proceeds similarly. The counter-arguments presented by each side at this time constitute what is called the *rebuttal*. The word *rebuttal* comes from two Latin words meaning *to thrust again*. If the time allowed for rebuttal is short, only the leaders of each side take part. If there is more time, the first affirmative speaks in rebuttal, then the first negative, second affirmative, second negative, and so on.

3. At the close of the rebuttal, which ends the debate, the judges retire to consider the merits of the arguments and the delivery of the opposing sides, and after arriving at a decision return and report the decision to the audience.

Below are given instructions for the individual speakers.

1. After the first affirmative speaker has stated the ques-

tion, he should present the points which he wishes to make. Each point should be stated clearly and should be supported by facts, illustrations, and convincing arguments.

2. The leader of the negative side then speaks. He proceeds similarly, and may in addition try to refute the points made by the preceding speaker of the affirmative side. This procedure is concluded by the last speaker on the negative, after which comes the rebuttal.

The rules governing a debate vary somewhat, but the really important point is that you should understand the rules governing your own debate before you take part in it. The exact meaning of the question should be understood and agreed upon beforehand by the debaters, and the statement of the question should be short and clear. Opinions do not count in a debate. Facts and arguments do. Refer to your opponent, never by name, but as "my opponent" or "my honorable opponent."

How to Secure Material for a Debate.

1. *Newspapers.* Watch the newspapers for discussions of questions relating to city, state, and national affairs.

2. *Books.* Histories, readers, geographies, civics, and many other books contain information useful in debating. Form the habit of going to the library.

3. *Parents and friends.* Talk to your parents and friends about present-day questions.

4. *High school debates.* Attend high school debates whenever you can.

Subjects for Debate. Below are given a number of subjects for debate. Before class the teacher will select two speakers for each side of a debate upon one of them. The members of each side should confer and plan their side.

The judges may be chosen from among the other members of the class. Their decision is to be regarded as the official decision. The other members of the class, however, may likewise decide by a majority vote which side has, in their opinion, won the debate. This will necessitate, of course, that all the members of the class study the question proposed for debate in order that they may be intelligent judges.

Only one of the subjects suggested will be required for this debate. But this list may be referred to, and the other topics used, whenever additional subjects are desired.

1. *Resolved*, That prizes should be offered as a reward for scholarship.
2. *Resolved*, That George Washington was a greater man than Lincoln.
3. *Resolved*, That the inventor is of more value to the world than the teacher.
4. *Resolved*, That a sailor runs more risk than a miner.
5. *Resolved*, That life in the country is more healthful than life in the city.
6. *Resolved*, That the country offers more opportunity for enjoyment than the city.
7. *Resolved*, That dogs show more intelligence than cats.
8. *Resolved*, That two half holidays a week are better than one whole holiday.

112. The Paragraph — Review

Exercises. A. What is a paragraph? What is a topic sentence? Review Lesson 50, and then write an interesting paragraph, using one of these sentences as a topic sentence :

1. I once owned a pet that was almost as intelligent as a person.

2. Of all recent inventions the airplane is likely to be most useful.
3. In a sewing class a girl learns a number of things which it is very desirable for her to know.
4. Gold is used for many purposes besides that of being coined into money.
5. In the Revolutionary War the American army won several victories under circumstances which presaged defeat.
6. In spite of what some people think, I know that neatness pays.

B. Write a paragraph upon a subject of your own choice or upon one of the following subjects:

1. A Modern Schoolhouse
2. A Modern Factory
3. My Favorite Character in History
4. The Winter Sport I Like Best
5. The Summer Sport I Like Best

113. Describing Places

In Lessons 34 through 39 you learned something about telling stories, and in Lesson 77 you learned how to give explanations. Sometimes, in addition to telling about things that have happened, or about things you know how to make or do, you may wish to describe things.

Description occurs in nearly every kind of writing. In telling a long story a writer usually needs to describe his characters and the places where the events take place. In explaining how to do or make things, it is often necessary to describe briefly the equipment or material which is to be used. But sometimes a person describes things merely

because he wishes to give others a picture of what he has seen. When you return from a trip, for instance, your friends and your family are interested to hear about the places and people that you have visited. Perhaps you show them snap-shots. But often snap-shots do not tell enough; so you describe what you have seen.

If you are to write good descriptions, you will need to acquire the habit of accurate observation. When you describe, you wish to give someone else the same impression of a place, person, or thing, which you yourself received. But if your own impression of what you have seen is vague and inaccurate, the impression you give to others will be vague and inaccurate also. Learn to observe carefully.

When you tell about things that have happened, you relate the events in the order in which they occurred. When you tell how to do or make something, you relate the steps in the order in which they should be performed. In description, however, the details are usually related in the order in which they would be noticed by some one actually looking at the place, person, or thing described.

When you come suddenly upon a place, for instance, your first impression is a general one. But as you look more attentively, you begin to notice details. In your description, therefore, you should state first the general appearance of the place, from the point at which you, in imagination, are standing. Then, in a logical order, you should mention those details which seem to you especially striking, and which will help to convey to your reader or listener the impression which you yourself received. Let us see, in more detail, how the facts just stated may be applied.

1. **General Impression.** Hold a picture of a building

before some one's eyes for only one or two seconds. What does the person see? Only the size and the shape, and possibly the color, but no details. He will tell you that the building is large or small, shaped like a cross, a T, or perhaps a square. In description this is called the *general impression*. In order to make your picture clear, always begin with the general impression. Do not begin with details. To illustrate, *The red brick hospital is a Roman cross* is a better introduction than *The red brick hospital has twenty-one windows*.

2. **Point of View.** Before beginning your description, you must decide from what *point of view* you will look at the place. Suppose, for instance, that you are describing your schoolhouse. If you imagine that you are standing at a little distance in front of it, you should first give your general impression of it from that point. Next give the details. But remember, in doing so, to give only those details which you could see if you were actually standing at that point. If you decide, instead, to imagine yourself as looking at the building from the side, your description will be somewhat different. Why?

If you describe the building from the front, and then wish to give details belonging to the side you may do so, but you must first, by some word or phrase, let your reader know that you have changed your point of view. Otherwise he might suppose that all the details given belonged to the front, and so would receive a wrong impression of the building. Remember, too, that if you are outside the building, and at a distance from it, you cannot see what is inside. Therefore, even though you know the details belonging to the inside, you must not give them until you

have let your reader know in some way that you have entered the building.

3. **Selection of Details.** You can easily see that the number of details which might be given about any one place or object would be very large indeed. But few people would be interested in knowing all of these details. Moreover, if too many details are given, the reader finds it difficult to keep them all in mind. The impression he receives is not so clear as it would be if only the striking details were mentioned. Include in your descriptions only those details which are important in giving your reader the particular impression which you wish to convey. The use of descriptive words suggesting sound, color, and motion will help you to make these details vivid.

4. **Arrangement of Details.** Lastly, arrange the details of your description in a definite order. Do not, for instance, begin to describe the doorway of a building, then speak of the chimney, and then go back to add further details about the doorway. Group together details which are related.

A Description of New York Harbor. Below is a description of the New York Harbor of many years ago. It is told from the point of view of someone on a vessel sailing into the harbor. What sentence gives the general impression? What words in this sentence tell us the writer's point of view? Read the whole description, noticing the order in which the details are arranged. All the details in this description contribute to the impression which the author wished to give.

(1) The scene on entering New York Harbor is among the finest that the eye can look upon. (2) To the right hand is the Long Island shore, handsomely shaded, with pretty villas and

hamlets peeping out from their screens of foliage. (3) On the left hand the hills of Staten Island rise much higher, crowned with noble mansions, while bustling villages line the edge of the bay. (4) The water presents a constantly changing panorama. Tall, white-sailed ships, swiftly moving, snorting and puffing tugs, great arklife ferry-boats of unique style, looking like houses built on rafts, large and stately steamboats with cabins tier above tier, graceful pleasure yachts, tall-masted and broad-sailed schooners, flotillas of barges and lighters, with fleets of vessels anchored, representing all nationalities, are scattered over the wide expanse. (5) A background is formed by the distant cities, and the steamer moves northward towards the statue of Liberty on Bedloe's Island and the cluster of green foliage flanked by the round buildings of Castle Garden in Battery Park.

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This description has a very clear outline. The first sentence, which is the topic sentence of the paragraph, gives us the point of view and the general impression. What is described in sentence (2)? in sentence (3)? in sentences (4) and (5)? The description may be outlined in this way:

1. General statement about the appearance of the harbor
2. What is seen on the right
3. What is seen on the left
4. What is seen on the water
5. What is seen in the background

A Description from *David Copperfield*. Read this description carefully, noticing the general impression, the point of view, and the selection of details.

(1) I looked in all directions as far out as I could stare over the wilderness, and away at the sea, and away at the river, but no house could I make out. There was a black barge, or some other kind of boat, not far off, high and dry on the ground, with

an iron funnel sticking out of it for a chimney and smoking very cosily.

“That’s not it?” said I. “That ship-looking thing?”

“That’s it, Mas’r Davy,” returned Ham.

(2) If it had been Aladdin’s palace, I suppose I could not have been more charmed with the romantic idea of living in it. There was a delightful door cut in the side, and it was roofed in, and there were little windows in it; but the wonderful charm of it was, that it was a real boat which had no doubt been upon the water hundreds of times, and which had never been intended to be lived in on dry land.

(3) It was beautifully clean inside, and as tidy as possible. There was a table and a Dutch clock, and a chest of drawers, and on the chest of drawers there was a tea-tray with a painting on it of a lady with a parasol, taking a walk with a child who was trundling a hoop. The tray was kept from tumbling down by a Bible; and the tray, if it had tumbled down, would have smashed a quantity of cups and saucers and a teapot that were grouped around the book. On the walls were some common colored pictures, framed and glazed, of scripture subjects. . . . Over the little mantelshelf was a picture of the “Sarah Jane” lugger, with a real little wooden stern stuck on to it . . . There were some hooks in the beams of the ceiling, the use of which I did not divine then; and some lockers and boxes and conveniences of that sort which served for seats and eked out the chairs.

CHARLES DICKENS

Since this description is taken from a story, it contains two lines of conversation. In discussing the description, however, we may consider these two lines as belonging with the first paragraph.

What words in the first section of this description give the general impression? From what point of view does the author first describe the house? That is, where do you

think David and his companion probably were in relation to the house in the first part of the description? Are they nearer to the house in paragraph 2? What makes you think so? What details about the house are given in this paragraph?

What is the point of view in paragraph 3? What word in the first sentence of this paragraph shows that the point of view has changed? Notice that this first sentence gives a general impression of the inside of the house. The author next mentions three pieces of furniture. What are they? What details does he then give in connection with one of these pieces of furniture? He next gives details about the walls, and then details about the ceiling. What are they?

Are the details in this description specific and vivid? Can you see the house in your mind? Try to draw a picture of the outside of the house.

Make an outline of this description, having one topic for each of the numbered sections.

Exercises. *A.* Describe the front of some striking building known to every one in the class, to see whether the class recognizes the building from your description.

B. Imagine that you have just moved to another town or city. Write a letter to a friend describing your home.

C. Think of some beautiful natural scene. Imagine that you are standing at a definite point from which to view the scene, and describe it. Or, if you prefer, write a description on one of the following subjects. Be sure that you give the general impression before you give the details. Arrange the details so that one follows naturally after another. Use words which are specific. Use the Checking List to revise and correct your work.

1. A Warship
2. An Abandoned House
3. A Harvest Festival
4. A Float
5. An Attractive Room
6. A Maypole Dance
7. The Coldest Day I Remember
8. A Crowded Beach on a Hot Summer Day

If you prefer to write a description of something else, ask your teacher to approve your choice.

114. Describing People

You have seen that in order to describe a place accurately you should observe it with very great care. You must do likewise in describing people. Shut your eyes and try to remember how one of your friends looks. Can you recall his appearance and characteristics with sufficient distinctness so that another person would know, from your description of him, whom you mean? In order to give a clear description of your friend you must first have observed his appearance and characteristics accurately. Secondly, you must include in your description those details of appearance which belong especially to him, and so will distinguish him from all others. Do not forget to give the general impression first.

What is the general impression in each of the following descriptions? Point out the descriptive details.

1. The doctor was a portly old gentleman, in a suit of black, with strings at his knees and stockings below them. He had a bald head, highly polished, a deep voice, and a double chin.

2. He was a thin-faced, spare-figured man of middle age, dressed in a dusty, drabbish-colored suit such as I never saw before.

3. Nan was a handsome girl, with a fresh color, clear eye, quick smile, and the self-poised look young women with a purpose always have. She was simply and sensibly dressed, walked easily, and seemed full of vigor, with her broad shoulders well back, arms swinging freely, and the elasticity of youth and health in every motion. The few people she met turned to look at her, as if it was a pleasant sight to see a hearty, happy girl walking countryward that lovely day.

LOUISA M. ALCOTT

4. He was a homely, freckled, sandy-haired young fellow, with a bright blue eye that had frankness and good nature in it, and a twinkle of a pleasant sort.

5. Blessings on thee, little man,
 Barefoot boy, with cheek of tan!
 With thy upturned pantaloons,
 And thy merry whistled tunes;
 With thy red lip, redder still,
 Kissed by strawberries on the hill.
 With the sunshine on thy face,
 Through thy torn brim's jaunty grace,
 From my heart I wish thee joy,
 I was once a barefoot boy!

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER

6. I remember him as if it were yesterday, as he came plodding to the inn door, his sea-chest following behind him in a handbarrow; a tall, strong, heavy, nut-brown man; his tarry pigtail falling over the shoulders of his soiled blue coat; his hands ragged and scarred, with black, broken nails; and the sabre cut across one cheek, a dirty, livid white.

ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON

7. He was sixty, if a day; a little man, with a broad, not very straight back, with bowed shoulders and one leg shorter than the other.

Sometimes writers give much more detailed descriptions of people, as in the following paragraph. In that case they first describe the general appearance of the person and in an orderly way pass from one detail to the next.

Now, as to the appearance of Mr. Jones, I noticed that he was of medium height, neither tall nor short, neither stout nor thin. His forehead was wide, a sign of great power of organization, and the front of his head was large, a sign of ability. His hair was light, a sign of courage; his ears were broad, to enable him to hear everything; his eyebrows were strongly marked; he had a cast in his left eye; his nose was thin, the sign of a clever talker; his tongue was persuasive, his mouth large, and his neck of a good length. His complexion was not excessively fair; he had a broad chest, a small waist, and feet of medium size. When he walked, it was with a slight stoop. As to his manner, he seemed generally to be absorbed in thought. He was extraordinarily courteous, with a pleasant face and word for every one, of every station, and a wide sympathy for all men.

Why is each of these descriptions good? Tell in your own words the picture that you get from each one. Perhaps you can sketch some of the persons described.

Exercises. *A.* Look through the books or magazines you read outside of school to find other descriptions of people. Select the one that you think is best and read it in class, telling why you think it is a good description.

B. Look carefully at some one in your class. Notice how the boy or the girl is dressed. Notice the face. Then try to describe to yourself his or her appearance. When

you have done this to your satisfaction, write a short description of the boy or the girl you have in mind, making it so clear that every one in the class will know whom you are describing.

C. Make a similar study of some child or grown person whom you see today. Perhaps the following expressions may be useful:

chubby, distinguished forehead, broad sweep of forehead, black-browed, scowling, trembling, cheery, quivering lips, condemning forefinger, solemn, dancing eyes, sparkling, querulous voice, coquettish, neat, untidy

D. Think of two people of striking appearance whom you know well. Write a short description of each. Make each description so clear that any one who does not know the person described will be able to recognize him from your description. Use the Checking List.

115. Using Descriptive Details to Suggest Mood

Sometimes, especially in descriptions in stories and poetry, a writer uses descriptive details to suggest a mood or feeling. Turn to Lesson 89 and notice again how Poe uses descriptive words to suggest gloom. In the first stanza below, the poet Bryant describes autumn, emphasizing the sadness of that time of year. Notice the italicized words in this stanza and explain what each adds to the description. Which of them especially suggest a feeling of sadness? From some points of view, however, autumn is not a dreary time of year. In what ways is October, for instance, a pleasant month? Had the poet wished to do so, he might have given the reader a different feeling about autumn.

The *melancholy* days are come, the *saddest* of the year,
 Of *wailing* winds, and naked woods, and meadows *brown* and *sere*.
 Heaped in the hollows of the grove, the *autumn* leaves lie *dead*;
 They *rustle* to the *eddy*ing gust, and to the rabbit's tread.
 The robin and the wren are flown, and from the shrubs the jay,
 And from the wood-top calls the crow through all the *gloomy* day.

WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT

In the following stanzas two other poets describe two very different kinds of days. What feeling is suggested in the first of these stanzas? in the second? How does each italicized word help to suggest the mood or feeling expressed by the stanza as a whole?

The day is *cold* and *dark* and *dreary*;
 It *rains* and the wind is never *wear*y;
 The vine still *clings* to the *mouldering* wall,
 But at every *gust* the *dead* leaves fall,
 And the day is *dark* and *dreary*.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW

The sun is *bright*, the air is *clear*,
 The *darting* swallows *soar* and *sing*,
 And from the stately elms I hear
 The bluebird prophesying *spring*.

SIR FS. H. DOYLE

Exercise. Describe a farm-house kitchen on Christmas morning; a wheat field on a sunny August afternoon; a drug store window on the Fourth of July or on St. Valentine's day; a country store; an attic decorated for a Halloween party; the dining room of a steamer; a ferry on a rainy day. Decide first upon the mood you wish to express.

116. *Leave and Let; Teach and Learn*

Leave and *let* and *teach* and *learn* are often used incorrectly.

1. *Leave* means "to depart" or "to go away from," and it should not be used for *let*, which means "to allow." Study the following sentences:

1. *Let* me do the work.
2. *Let* the dog lie there.
3. I must *leave* now.
4. We shall *leave* the city tomorrow.

2. *Teach* means "to give instruction;" *learn* means "to acquire knowledge."

1. *Teach* me how to skate, please.
2. I am *learning* how to skate.

In the first sentence you are asking for instruction. In the second sentence you state that you are acquiring knowledge of how to skate.

Exercise. Write the following sentences, choosing the correct word. State the reason for your choice.

1. I have (learned, taught) my little dog many tricks.
2. Fido has (taught, learned) many tricks.
3. I have (learned, taught) my lessons.
4. Mother (teaches, learns) me how to cook.
5. The generals (teach, learn) their men how to endure hardships.
6. It is difficult to (learn, teach) wild animals to perform tricks.
7. I like to (teach, learn) my brother, for he (learns, teaches) very quickly.
8. Washington Irving liked to (teach, learn) others the stories about the early Dutch settlers.

9. I have (learned, taught) myself how to swim.
10. (Let, Leave) my kitten come in.
11. Anna (lets, leaves) me go with her to the store.
12. (Let, Leave) me have your knife, please.

117. *Lie and Lay*

What is a transitive verb? What is an intransitive verb?

Read carefully these two sentences:

I *lie* down every day.

I *lay* a flower on the table.

What does the verb *lie* in the first sentence mean? What does the verb *lay* in the second sentence mean? What is the tense of each? Which of these two verbs is transitive and requires an object? Which is intransitive and does not require an object? If you remember that the verb *lay* is transitive, and requires an object, whereas the verb *lie* is intransitive, and does not require an object, you will always be able to use these two verbs correctly.

The verb *lay* takes an object, but the verb *lie* does not.

Repeat these forms until you know them:

lie, lay, have lain

lay, laid, have laid

Lay, the present tense of the transitive verb *lay*, should not be confused with *lay*, the past tense of the intransitive verb *lie*. In the sentence "I always lay my pencil in that tray," *lay* is the present tense of the transitive verb *lay*. What is its object? In the sentence "The toys lay on the floor," *lay* is the past tense of the intransitive verb *lie*. How do you know that this is so?

Give all persons, both in the singular and in the plural, of each of the following tenses:

<i>lie</i>	<i>lay</i>
I lie	I lay
I am lying	I am laying
I lay	I laid
I was lying	I was laying
I shall lie	I shall lay

Exercises. A. Write these sentences, using the correct tense forms of *lie*:

1. The rake is — in the yard.
2. I shall — here until you return.
3. Four little robins were — in the nest.
4. The paper napkins — on the shelf untouched all last month.
5. All night the ship — at anchor.
6. Mother — down every afternoon.
7. The papers — before the general.
8. The doctor says you must — down.
9. The kitten — peacefully in the sunshine.
10. The playthings were — on the floor.

B. Copy the following sentences, filling in the proper tense forms of *lay* and giving your reasons:

1. I am — the spoons at the places.
2. We have — the slices of meat on the platter.
3. The little girl is — the parsley around the meat.
4. We have been — the rugs on the floor.
5. We shall — the napkins on the table next.
6. You must — that knife down.
7. We — the valentines on the teacher's desk.
8. The workmen had been — bricks many days before the street was finished.

9. I — the picture away in my trunk.
10. John always — the grapes on the ice chest.

C. Copy the following sentences, filling in the blanks with the proper forms of *lie* or *lay*. Give the reason for your choice.

1. I am — the scissors down now.
I am — down now.
2. The squirrel is — his winter food away in his little house.
The squirrel is — on the limb of the tree.
3. The children — on the sleeping porch all afternoon.
The children — the slippers by the side of the bed.
4. You must — that down.
You must — down.
5. The boy has — for an hour under the trees.
The boy has — his cap beside him on the grass.
6. Mother likes to — in the hammock.
Mother likes to — the baby in the hammock.

D. Copy these sentences, inserting the proper tense form of *lie* or *lay*, and giving your reasons.

1. The horse was — in his stall.
2. We — this little rug here a few moments ago.
3. A while ago the dog — at his master's feet.
4. The paint brush — on the board.
5. I looked about and there — the parasol.
6. The President — the cornerstone of the great building.
7. The cookies were — temptingly in the pan.
8. The leaves have been — on the ground a month.
9. The cherries have — in the boxes until they have spoiled.
10. The kitten was — in its basket.

E. Use the present tense of the transitive verb *lay* correctly in five sentences; the past tense in five sentences; the future tense in five sentences. Write five sentences containing the present tense of the intransitive verb *lie*; five containing the past tense; five containing the future tense.

F. Write ten sentences containing the transitive verb *lay* in the present tense; ten containing *lay*, the past tense of the intransitive verb *lie*. Tell why each of these verbs is used correctly in these sentences.

118. *Sit and Set*

Read carefully these sentences:

1. Her grandmother *sits* by the window.
2. Please *set* that candy on the table.
3. She *set* the jar on the table and *sat* down.
4. The maid is *setting* the vase on the mantel.

What does the verb *sit* mean? Is it transitive or intransitive? How do you know?

What does the verb *set* mean? Is it transitive or intransitive? How do you know? In these sentences the verb *set* means "to put" or "place." Sometimes it is used with another meaning; as, "We *set* out on our journey," and "The sun *sets* in the west." But if you remember that *set*, meaning "to place," is transitive and requires an object, you will always be able to use the verbs *sit* and *set* correctly.

Set, meaning to place, takes an object, but *sit* does not.

Exercises. *A.* Give the present and past tenses of the following:

I sit down.

I am sitting down.

I set the vase down.

I am setting the vase down.

What is the past tense of *sit*? of *set*?

B. Write the following sentences, choosing the correct forms of *sit* and *set*. Give your reason for each choice. What tense are you using?

1. Mary was — the dishes on the table.
2. George — his box of tools on the bench.
3. Please — the ink bottle on the desk.
4. They — down on the door step.
5. Let's — down awhile and talk.
6. I — down in the big arm chair.
7. I — two vases on the mantel.
8. We have been — here long enough.
9. Rowland has been — the boxes of cherries into the crate.
10. — down in this chair.
11. We — down to rest.
12. Sometimes in school we grow tired of — too long.
13. Some people do not like to — up straight.
14. I know some people who are too lazy to — things in their right places.
15. Do — still.

119. Rise and Raise

Read these sentences:

1. The balloon *rises*.
2. The bread *rose*.
3. The pupil *raises* his hand.
4. The man *raised* the heavy stone.

What is the difference in meaning between the verbs *rise* and *raise*? Which verb is transitive? Which is intransitive? How can you tell?

The principal forms of *rise* are: *rise, rose, have risen*. The principal forms of *raise* are: *raise, raised, have raised*. If you remember that the verb *raise* is transitive and takes an object, whereas the verb *rise* is intransitive and does not take an object, you will always be able to use these two verbs correctly.

***Raise* takes an object, but *rise* does not.**

Exercises. A. Give the present and the past tenses of the following:

I rise early.	I am rising early.
I raise the stone.	I am raising the stone.

B. Copy the following sentences, inserting the correct forms of *rise* and *raise*.

1. Yesterday I — at six o'clock.
2. Tomorrow I shall — early to go fishing.
3. The cake has not — yet.
4. The policeman — the old man to his feet.
5. It has rained so long the river has — six inches.
6. We have not — many potatoes this year.
7. The cost of sugar has —.
8. The merchants have — the cost of flour.
9. The mist has — from the ground.
10. The bird — into the air.

120. Review—Verbs

Copy these sentences, filling each blank with the proper form of one of the following verbs: *can, may; lie, lay; sit, set; rise, raise; teach, learn*. Tell in each case what tense you have used. What do *sit, set, lie, and lay* mean? Which ones take objects? Give the reason for your choice in each case. In the first sentence the reason may be stated thus:

I use *may*, because *may* expresses permission and not ability.

1. — I go?
2. I — pick more cherries in an hour than Lillian.
3. My dog Jip — many new tricks every month.
4. You — borrow a pencil from Mary.
5. Bread —.
6. My cake has not — so well as it usually does.
7. Grandma is — the pears in the pan.
8. Some of the pears are — under the trees.
9. The price of grain often —.
10. People often — the price of grain.
11. Why don't you — your dog tricks? He would — quickly.
12. I am — my baby sister to count.
13. We — do much when we have to.
14. The civil engineers — the stakes in the ground.
15. The laborers — down to rest.
16. We — the scissors on the table.
17. Today the scissors — on the table.
18. Yesterday the scissors — on the table.
19. We have — the jewel box on the dressing table.
20. — the jewel box on the dresser.
21. He — down at the piano.
22. Father says that I — go to town today.
23. Is there any other form of the verb you — use?
24. You — use this paper.
25. I am going to — down.
26. I — the book down.
27. Do you — in bed late in the morning?
28. The cat was — in front of the fire.
29. — your work down and rest.
30. Who — the bricks in the chimney?
31. We are going to — out some trees on Arbor Day.
32. Where did you — the bowl?

33. I have — in this chair many an hour.
34. I — the chair in the hall.
35. The tide is — fast.
36. — the window.
37. I usually — at seven.
38. The balloon — slowly into the air.

121. Review—Case

What cases may a noun or pronoun be in? What is the case of a noun or pronoun used (1) as a subject substantive? (2) as a predicate word? (3) as the direct object of a verb? (4) as the object of a preposition? (5) as an indirect object? (6) to denote possession?

Exercise. Choose the correct case forms in the following sentences and give the reason for your choice. Work rapidly.

1. John saw Henry and (I, me).
2. Yes, (we, us) boys made good grades.
3. Will the sailors take (we, us) boys for a ride?
4. Did the principal say that (we, us) girls were to blame?
5. That was (us, we).
6. That is (I, me).
7. These bananas are better than (them, those).
8. Grace and (her, she) are good friends.
9. That is (they, them) coming over the hill.
10. Was it (they, them) who gave you the apricots?
11. James and (he, him) have been waiting a long time.
12. This is a secret between you and (I, me).
13. These skates are for Gretchen and (I, me).
14. Edith was with Nell and (I, me) when the accident happened.
15. Give the jumping rope to (her, she) and (I, me).

122. Using Illustrations

One of the most effective ways of making a point clear is to illustrate it by means of a story. Benjamin Franklin told the following story, called "An Ax to Grind," to illustrate the point that a person should not be deceived by flattery.

When I was a little boy I was accosted one cold winter morning as I was starting out to school by a smiling man with an ax on his shoulder. "My pretty boy," said he, "has your father a grindstone?"

"Yes, sir," said I.

"You are a fine little fellow!" said he. "Will you let me grind my ax on it?"

Pleased with the compliment of "fine little fellow," "Oh, yes, sir," I answered. "It is down in the shop."

"And will you, my little man," said he, patting me on the head, "get me a little hot water?"

How could I refuse? I ran and soon brought a kettleful.

"How old are you?—and what's your name?" continued he, without waiting for a reply. "I am sure you are one of the finest lads that I have ever seen; will you just turn a few minutes for me?"

Tickled with the flattery, like a little fool, I went to work and bitterly did I rue the day. It was a new ax and I toiled and tugged till I was almost tired to death. The school bell rang and I could not get away. My hands were blistered and the ax was not half ground.

At length it was sharpened and the man turned to me with, "Now, you little rascal, you've played truant! Scud to the school or you'll rue it!"

"Alas!" thought I, "it was hard enough to turn the grindstone this cold day; but now to be called a little rascal is too much."

The lesson sank into my mind and often have I thought of it.

Let us study this story carefully.

1. Find all the expressions and actions which pleased the boy; such as, *smiling man*, *pretty boy*, *fine little fellow*.

2. What are the expressions which show how hard the boy tried to please the man; such as, *Oh, yes, sir; ran; soon*; etc.?

3. Find the expressions which show the thanks he received for his hard work; such as, *you little rascal*.

4. Point out each mark of punctuation and give the reason for the use of those for which you have had rules.

Exercises. A. Make an outline of the story "An Ax to Grind," using these suggestions:

I. Introduction

1. Who
2. When
3. Where

II. Body

- 1.
- 2.
- etc.

III. Conclusion

Where does each of these parts begin and end?

B. Review Lessons 34 through 39. Then prepare a story to illustrate one of the following proverbs. Do not merely explain what the saying means; tell a story which illustrates it. Make the story interesting by adding conversation and action.

1. Where there's a will, there's a way.
2. A stitch in time saves nine.
3. Take care of the pennies and the dollars will take care of themselves.

4. Penny wise, pound foolish.
5. Easy come, easy go.

123. Debates

You have already learned how debates should be conducted, and have taken part in them.

In Lesson 111 it was suggested that the teacher, before class, select two speakers for each side of the debate. This method of selecting the debaters may, however, be varied as desired. The teacher may, for instance, appoint more than two speakers for each side; or the speakers may be elected by the class; or the two leaders may be appointed by the teacher or elected by the class, each leader then being allowed to choose the other speakers for his side. Before the year is over, every member of the class should have had a number of opportunities to debate.

Below are several subjects for debates. It is not expected that all of these will be used at this time, but occasionally, when it seems desirable, debates may be held upon subjects in this list. You will find debating an interesting and profitable language exercise.

1. *Resolved*, That work in a factory is preferable to work upon a farm.
2. *Resolved*, That work in a factory is preferable to work in a store.
3. *Resolved*, That a boy brought up in the country is more likely to succeed in life than a boy brought up in the city.
4. *Resolved*, That it is better to learn a trade than a profession.
5. *Resolved*, That any poor boy can work out of poverty as Lincoln did.

6. *Resolved*, That the study of English is of more benefit than the study of mathematics.
7. *Resolved*, That there should be military training in every school.
8. *Resolved*, That pupils should buy their own textbooks rather than have them furnished.
9. *Resolved*, That sewing and cooking should be taught to girls in the grammar grades.
10. *Resolved*, That credit towards graduation should be given for music lessons taken out of school.

124. Review—Sentences

As you learned in Lessons 8 and 9, sentences may be classified according to use as *declarative* or *interrogative*, *exclamatory* or *non-exclamatory*. A declarative sentence makes a statement or gives a command, while an interrogative sentence asks a question. When a sentence of either kind expresses strong feeling, it is, in addition to being declarative or interrogative, said to be exclamatory. If it does not express strong feeling it is non-exclamatory.

You have also learned that sentences may be classified according to form as *simple*, *compound*, or *complex*. A simple sentence contains but one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound. A compound sentence contains two or more *principal* clauses. A complex sentence contains one principal clause, and one or more *subordinate* clauses. What is a principal clause? a subordinate clause? You know, too, that a subordinate clause is sometimes used as an adjective or as an adverb. What are clauses so used called? If you are not sure of these points, review Lessons 55, 56, 57, and 58.

Exercise. Classify the following sentences as *declarative*

or *interrogative*, *exclamatory* or *non-exclamatory*, and as *simple*, *compound*, or *complex*. Point out each *principal* and each *subordinate clause*; tell how each subordinate clause is used, and whether it is *adjectival* or *adverbial*.

1. Work steadily while you work.
2. Did that child learn his lesson?
3. A complex sentence is a sentence which contains one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.
4. The autumn leaves are falling fast.
5. Who invented the steamboat?
6. This is the boy who always tells the truth.
7. Which is the seat that she may have?
8. My father would not go abroad, nor would he allow me to go.
9. The clouds grew darker and the rain fell in torrents.
10. I like her because she seems unselfish.
11. Often I think of the black wharves and the ships and the sea tides.
12. A stitch in time saves nine.
13. Who opened the gate?
14. Come before it grows dark.
15. Courtesy is just the act of being kind.
16. Take care of the pennies, and the dollars will take care of themselves.
17. The first thing one sees when one gets to the place is a large white hotel.
18. In summer it is a favorite place for tourists, who go there to see the beautiful scenery.
19. When the tide rises, the river roars with might and main.
20. When the tide is full, the river relapses into quiet.
21. A boy walked through the car and scattered advertisements to the left and right.
22. I went to pick the puppy up, but he growled at me.

23. He walked as if he were tired.
24. When he reached his seat, he glanced around.
25. If you were there, nobody saw you.
26. Is he the man who makes watches?

125. Analysis of Sentences

In your study of grammar before this time, you have had practice in separating sentences into their complete subjects and complete predicates; in finding the subject substantive, the predicate verb, the direct object or predicate word, and the indirect object; and in pointing out the modifiers and telling how each is used. The process of separating a sentence into the parts of which it is composed, and of showing the relation existing between the parts, is called **analysis**. You have already learned to recognize subjects, predicates, objects, predicate words, and modifiers, and when you analyze a sentence you merely separate it into these parts and tell how they are related. Practice in analysis will help you to understand the meaning of sentences.

The steps in analyzing a sentence may be stated as follows. The numbers in parentheses refer to lessons in which these points are discussed.

1. Classify the sentence according to use as:

declarative or interrogative (8)
exclamatory or non-exclamatory (9)

and according to form as:

simple (55)
compound (56)
complex (57)

2. Point out:

- the complete subject (28)
- the complete predicate (28)

3. Point out:

- the subject substantive (28)
- the predicate verb (28)
- the direct object (78)
- the predicate word (79)
- the indirect object (78)

4. Find the modifiers of the subject substantive, of the predicate verb, and of the object or predicate word. Point out also all other modifiers. Tell in each case whether the modifier is

- an adjective (16, 42, 43)
- an adverb (17, 45)
- a phrase (53)
- a clause (58)

Simple Sentences. Let us see how the simple sentence, *The best singers in our school gave a concert on Friday*, would be analyzed according to the steps indicated.

1. *The best singers in our school gave a concert on Friday* is a simple, declarative, non-exclamatory sentence.
2. The complete subject is *The best singers in our school*.
The complete predicate is *gave a concert on Friday*.
3. The subject substantive is *singers*.
The predicate verb is *gave*.
The direct object is *concert*.
4. The subject substantive *singers* is modified by the adjective *best* and the article *the*, and by the adjectival phrase *in our school*. The predicate verb *gave* is modified by the adverbial phrase *on Friday*. The direct object *concert* is modified by the article *a*.

Analyze the following simple sentences according to the directions given:

1. The old gentleman helped the newsboy.
2. The little girl ran away.
3. Airplanes fly swiftly.
4. The man owns a large house.
5. I saw five kites.
6. Do you know the name of a great American poet?
7. The waves tossed the wrecked vessel upon the beach.
8. We defeated his plans.
9. The stream flows swiftly between its rocky banks.
10. The general praised his gallant soldiers.
11. The poet Whittier was a Quaker.
12. My grand mother is very seriously ill.
13. The captain of the vessel has just returned from a voyage around the world.
14. The conductor signalled the engineer.
15. The tulip is a very gay flower.
16. Harry seemed angry.
17. The secretary wrote his report.
18. John and James went to the city for a holiday.
19. He is tall and strong.
20. They read and played games in the afternoon.
21. We saw Mr. Smith and Professor Green on our way to school.
22. He gave me two books.

A Test. Write and analyze nine simple sentences, each of which contains one of the following:

1. A compound subject
2. A compound predicate
3. A direct object
4. A predicate noun
5. A predicate pronoun

6. A predicate adjective
7. An indirect object
8. A subject substantive modified by a descriptive adjective and an adjectival phrase.
9. A predicate verb modified by an adverb and an adverbial phrase.

If you can write these nine sentences correctly and analyze them without making a mistake, you have learned to analyze simple sentences.

Compound Sentences (56). Let us see now how the directions for analyzing sentences may be applied to compound sentences. The sentence "Mildred works hard, but George wastes his time," is a compound, declarative, non-exclamatory sentence, composed of the two principal clauses *Mildred works hard* and *George wastes his time*, connected by the conjunction *but*.

In analyzing a compound sentence, separate the sentence into its clauses in this way, and analyze each principal clause separately, as if it were a simple sentence. The analysis of a compound sentence thus resolves itself into the analysis of two simple sentences.

Analyze the following sentences:

1. The wind blew and the waves dashed upon the shore.
2. The woman talked and her sister listened.
3. They went on a trip up the river, but the rest of us stayed at home.
4. The old man walked into the room, and his granddaughter assisted him to an armchair by the window.
5. The view from the top of that hill is beautiful, but the climb to the top is a long and difficult one.

Write and analyze five compound sentences.

Complex Sentences (57). Let us see how the directions

for analyzing sentences may be applied to complex sentences. The sentence "When summer comes, we shall go to the country" is a complex, declarative, non-exclamatory sentence. It is composed of the principal clause *we shall go to the country*, and the subordinate clause *when summer comes*, which is introduced by the adverb *when*. *When summer comes* modifies the verb *shall go* by telling *when*, and is therefore an adverbial clause.

In analyzing a complex sentence, first separate the sentence into its clauses. State which is the principal clause and which the subordinate, and point out the adverb, pronoun, or conjunction which introduces the subordinate clause, or connects it with the principal clause. Tell how the subordinate clause is used, and classify it as adverbial or adjectival. After these preliminary steps, analyze each clause separately, as if it were a simple sentence.

Analyze the following sentences:

1. You would like our camp, which is on the shore of a beautiful lake.
2. The lake looks very dark blue when a thunderstorm is coming.
3. We walked until we came to a gray, moss-grown cottage.
4. The old house looked as if the first high wind would blow it down.
5. The boy who is running across the street is Theodore Jones.
6. I know a mechanic who will very quickly repair your automobile.
7. My brother went home because he hurt his hand.
8. I have heard some news that is very important to my father.
9. We watched the ship when she sailed out to sea.

10. I heard him come in because he slammed the door.
11. I would go if I were you.
12. When winter comes we feed the birds.
13. If John were here, he would sing for us.
14. He came while I was out.
15. I found the place where he lives.
16. This door leads into the room where the statue is.
17. He came before I expected him.

Write and analyze five complex sentences.

126. Review—Friendly Letters

Review Lesson 65 on Friendly Letters, and write two of the following:

1. Write a letter to some friend who lives in another town, telling about a club to which you belong.
2. A friend of your sister's is to arrive on Saturday for a visit at your house. Write a letter telling the friend, whom you have never seen, where you will meet her, and how you may recognize each other.
3. Write a note to your teacher asking to be excused from a certain lesson which you were unable to prepare because of illness.
4. Write a letter to your teacher asking her to send you, by a classmate, assignments for your home lessons, as you will be obliged to be absent from school for two or three weeks.
5. Write an informal note to a classmate asking him to be one of a party to go nutting next Saturday.
6. Write a letter to your teacher giving a report upon the last book which you have read.
7. Write a letter to a friend, giving an account of a visit to some interesting place.

127. Business Letters

Business letters differ in some ways from friendly letters. While the latter treat more or less of personal affairs and may discuss a number of topics, the business letter as a rule is concerned only with one particular item of business.

The Heading. The heading of a business letter should contain the same items as the heading of a friendly letter. If the letter is written on plain stationery, the arrangement of these items is the same as in a friendly letter. On business stationery, however, the name and location of the business are usually printed at the top of the page. The date is then the only item to be written in at the right. When the entire heading is written in, the last two items may be indented, as in the business letters given in this lesson, or the heading may be written in "block" form, as follows:

4568 Emerson Avenue
Toledo, Ohio
December 9, 1929

The Inside Address. In a business letter, just above the salutation is placed the address of the person to whom the letter is written. Is this true of the two letters in this lesson? This inside address should always be the same as the superscription. One reason for writing the inside address is that it enables the person who folds the letter to know in which envelope to place it. If the "block" form is used for the heading, the inside address must also be written in this form.

Messrs. Clifton and Company
1629 State Street
Cleveland, Ohio

The Salutation. The salutation of a business letter is usually more formal than that of a friendly letter. Such salutations as *Dear Sir*, *My dear Mr. Hall*, *Dear Madam*, *My dear Miss White*, and *Gentlemen* are ordinarily used.

The Body of the Letter. The body of the letter should be brief and to the point. It should contain just enough information to be clear, and it should always be courteous.

The Complimentary Close. The complimentary close is usually formal also. "Yours truly," "Very truly yours," "Respectfully yours," are commonly used. Such complimentary closes as "Yours sincerely," "Very sincerely yours," may be used in business letters when the person addressed is a personal friend of the writer.

The Signature. The signature should be complete enough so that the person who replies will know precisely how to address the writer. "George L. Brown" is better than "G. L. Brown." Review Lesson 65.

Below is an example of a business letter:

4568 Emerson Avenue
Toledo, Ohio
December 9, 1929

Messrs. Clifton and Company
1629 State Street
Cleveland, Ohio

Gentlemen:

Please send me, by American Express:
One electric table lamp, No. 14
One electric floor lamp, No. 15.

Please ship these lamps so that they will reach me by December 23, as they will be of no use to me later.

Very truly yours,
Edgar S. Stanton

This is the reply:

CLIFTON AND COMPANY
Dealers in
ELECTRICAL SUPPLIES
1629 State Street
Cleveland, Ohio

December 12, 1929

Mr. Edgar S. Stanton
4568 Emerson Avenue
Toledo, Ohio

Dear Sir:

Your order, dated December 9, is being quickly and carefully filled. The lamps, which are leaving Cleveland tonight by American Express, should reach you by December 15.

We thank you for this order and shall be pleased to serve you again.

Yours very truly,
CLIFTON AND COMPANY
Per John Miller

Exercises. A. Write the heading, the inside address, the salutation, the complimentary close, and the signature for each of the following:

1. Miss Ruth Smith of 44 School Street, Boston, Mass., writes on June 2, 1929, to the Springfield Oil Company, Springfield, Mass.
2. On April 2, 1929, Edward Brown of 20 Maple Street, Lawrence, New Jersey, writes to Arthur Westover Company, 26 East 46th Street, New York, N. Y.
3. On May 17, 1929, Mrs. Edward Florer of 21 Bloomfield Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, writes to Mrs. John Wilson, 24 Myrtle Street, Newark, N. J.
4. On January 14, 1929, Miss Florence Wheeler of Miss

Hallworth's School, Milton, Mass., writes to the Northfield Stationery Company, 62 East Pennsylvania Ave., Washington, D. C.

B. You have found a hand bag on the street and have seen in the "Lost and Found" columns of a newspaper an advertisement about the loss of a hand bag which may be the one you have found. Write a courteous letter to the advertiser, telling her that you have found a hand bag.

C. Write three of the following letters:

1. Write a letter to a postmaster, requesting that your mail be sent, until further notice, to your summer address.
2. Write a letter to the manager of the basket ball team of another school, to arrange for a game with your team.
3. Write a letter ordering class pins for the members of your class. Write a check payable to the firm from which you are ordering the pins.
4. Write to Endicott and Webb, a mail order house at 30 East Street, Springfield, Mass., asking them to send you their catalogue.
5. Write a letter subscribing for some magazine.
6. Write to a book dealer inquiring the price of two books which you would like to own.
7. Write a letter to The Little Bookshop, 20 School Street, Boston, Mass., ordering two books and inclosing a money order for the amount due.
8. Write a letter to the editor of your local newspaper, calling attention to the need of a public playground in your town.

D. Using your own address for a heading, write two of the orders suggested on the next page. Supply suitable addresses for the companies and, where necessary, the names of the companies also. When you have finished,

exchange letters with one of your classmates and write appropriate acknowledgments of your classmate's orders.

1. Three tons of coal from the American Coal Company
2. Pullman reservations to another city
3. Two books from Silver, Burdett and Company
4. Furniture from a mail order house
5. Sugar and flour from a grocery near your home
6. Lumber for a new barn
7. Farm implements
8. A victrola, a piano, or a radio set

128. Observation Test

You have already learned that if you are to write good descriptions, you must be an accurate observer. It is likewise true that if you are going to be able to explain clearly how anything is done, you must have observed carefully.

Explain:

1. How a Horse Lies Down
2. How a Horse Rises
3. How to Get Off a Street Car
4. How a Cat Runs Down a Tree
5. How a Squirrel Runs Down a Tree
6. How a Camel Lies Down
7. How a Cow Lies Down
8. How a Chicken Drinks Water
9. How a Bird Flies
10. How a Rabbit Jumps
11. How a Duck Swims
12. How an Elephant Eats

If you have never observed any of these acts, tell accurately about some action which you have observed.

129. Explanations

You will remember that in order to give a clear explanation of how something is done you must first know exactly what the steps of the process are, and, in the second place, state the steps in the order in which they are performed. Read again Lesson 77, and review the rules for speaking correctly given in Lesson 22.

Choose one of the subjects given below; make an outline of the steps involved and then give a clear oral explanation.

1. How to Play Football
2. How to Sweep a Room
3. How to Set up a Tent
4. How to Take a Time Exposure
5. How to Load a Camera
6. How to Clean a Room
7. How to Make a Willow Whistle
8. How to Make a Kite
9. How to Ski
10. How a Baseball is Made
11. How to Make a Toboggan
12. How to Make a Double-Runner

130. Short Talks on Health

Perhaps you will sometime be asked to speak at a Health Campaign Meeting upon a subject like one of those given below. Let the class be divided into four groups, to each of which one of these topics is assigned. Each member of the group will then prepare a short talk upon the assigned topic. After the members of each group have listened to one another's speeches, they will choose one of their number to give his talk before the class.

1. What Good Health Requires. (Include the need of proper food, exercise, rest, fresh air, cleanliness, and regular habits. Explain each of these points.)
2. The Advantages of Good Health. (Health makes strong men—men who can work better and who can enjoy life more. Healthy persons are happier than those who are weak and sick. They are worth more to the nation.)
3. How the Lives of Babies May Be Saved. (Plenty of fresh, pure milk, plenty of fresh air, and proper care will save the lives of many little children.)
4. Proper Food. (There are inexpensive foods that are just as nourishing as expensive ones. A meal should be properly balanced; that is, it should have something from each of the following five groups: (1) Vegetables and fruits; (2) milk, eggs, meat; (3) fats; (4) sugar and starch; (5) water.)

After the talks have been given in class, let each member of the class write a composition upon Good Health.

Word Study. There are words without any or very much difference in their pronunciation, but with a very great difference in meaning. You should learn to distinguish clearly between such words. Some of them are given below. Notice very carefully how each of these words is spelled, and if you do not know its meaning, refer to your dictionary. Use each word in a sentence, to show that you understand its meaning.

instants	loose	plane	assistants
instance	lose	plain	assistance
isle	course	precede	quite
aisle	coarse	proceed	quiet
later	chose	precedes	son
latter	choose	proceeds	sun

principal	council	pear	corpse
principle	counsel	pare	corps
		pair	core

131. Correct Use of Prepositions

What is a preposition? Give several sentences containing prepositions. Read carefully the sentences below, noticing the difference in meaning.

1. The man is walking *in* his garden.
2. The man is walking *into* his garden.
3. I shall stay *at* the hotel.
4. I am going *to* the hotel.

What part of speech are *in*, *into*, *at*, and *to*? What does the first sentence mean? the second? the third? the fourth? When you wish to express *rest*, or *motion within a place*, you should use *at* or *in*; when you wish to express *motion from one place to another* you should use *to* or *into*. Therefore, say:

1. I *was in* the house.
2. I *was playing in* the house.
3. I *went into* the house.
4. I *was at* the theatre yesterday when you called.
5. I *went to* the theatre yesterday afternoon.

The sentence "I was to the theatre yesterday afternoon" is incorrect. Why?

Write two sentences using *at*, two using *in*, two using *to*, and two using *into*. Show that you have used these prepositions correctly.

The prepositions *between* and *among* are often confused. In the sentences below, notice the difference in their use:

1. I divided the apple *between* the two children.
2. I divided the apple *among* the four children.

Between is generally used in speaking of two persons, places, or things, and *among* in speaking of more than two.

Write two sentences using *between* and two using *among*. Show that you have used these words correctly.

Exercises. *A.* Which prepositions would you use in the following sentences? Why?

1. I went (in, into) the house.
2. I was not (at, to) home when you called.
3. He went (in, into) the printing business.
4. When the teacher came (in, into) the room, the girls were (in, into) their seats.
5. There (in, into) the basket lay a tiny kitten.
6. We saw a snake (in, into) the woods.
7. We were (to, at) the dog show yesterday.
8. Come (in, into) the office.
9. We were (in, into) the room.
10. They went (to, at) a party yesterday.
11. I threw the fish back (in, into) the river.
12. The watermelon was divided (between, among) twelve persons.
13. The dispute (between, among) the two girls was settled.
14. The estate was divided (between, among) the three brothers.
15. The sea-gull flew (between, among) the two ships.
16. The shares were equally distributed (between, among) the five partners.
17. My mother is not (to, at) home.

B. Write the sentences in Exercise A correctly and then analyze each one.

132. The Perfect Tenses

Present Perfect Tense. You have already studied the simple tenses of verbs. What are they? What time does the

present tense of a verb denote? the past tense? the future tense? How is the future tense of a verb formed? Give the present, past, and future tenses of the verb *drive*.

Now let us try to understand the meaning conveyed by the **perfect tenses**. Suppose that you and your father return from a motor ride and, leaving your car standing before the garage, go into the house. A few moments later, unknown to your father, you go out and drive the car into the garage. When you come in again your father says, "Will you please drive the car into the garage?" You reply, "I *have driven* the car into the garage." The time of replying to your father is present, and the time of driving the car into the garage is in the past. The verb phrase *have driven* therefore denotes that the act of driving the car into the garage was completed at or before the present, and the tense of such a verb phrase is called the **present perfect tense**.

The present perfect tense denotes that an action has been completed or perfected at or before the present time.

The present perfect tense of the verb *drive* is as follows:

PRESENT PERFECT

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I have driven	We have driven
You have driven	You have driven
He, she, or it has driven	They have driven

The present perfect tense of the verb *drive* is formed by prefixing the auxiliary *have* (*has* in the third person singular) to *driven*, a form of the verb *drive*. This form of the verb *drive* is called its **past participle**. Later you will learn the past participles of a number of verbs which are used in your everyday oral and written English. You will be

asked to learn them because they are used in forming the perfect tenses of these verbs.

The present perfect tense of a verb is always formed by prefixing the auxiliary *have* (*has* in the third person singular) to its past participle.

What is the tense of the verb phrases in the following sentences? How do you know?

1. I have tied the boat securely.
2. Have you brought the oars up to the camp?
3. We have prepared for rain.
4. They have put the windows down.
5. He has closed the door.

Give orally the present perfect tense of the verbs *walk*, *work*, *wish*, *go*, and *do*.

Write ten sentences, each containing the present perfect tense of a different verb.

Past Perfect Tense. Now imagine that one day you come home from a motor drive and leave the car standing in the driveway. But a little before three o'clock it looks like rain, so you go out and drive the car into the garage. Next day one of your friends says to you, "I went by your house about four o'clock yesterday and saw your car standing in the driveway." You reply that he must have passed by earlier than that, and give as your reason, "I *had driven* the car into the garage by three o'clock." The verb phrase *had driven* denotes that the act of driving the car into the garage was completed or perfected at or before a definite time in the past, namely, three o'clock, and the tense of this verb phrase is called the **past perfect tense**.

The past perfect tense denotes that an action was

completed or perfected at or before some definite time in the past.

The past perfect tense of the verb *drive* is as follows:

PAST PERFECT

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I had driven	We had driven
You had driven	You had driven
He, she, or it had driven	They had driven

How is the past perfect tense of the verb *drive* formed? The past perfect tense of a verb is always formed by prefixing the auxiliary *had* to its past participle.

What is the tense of the verb phrases in the following sentences? How do you know?

1. They had left before we arrived.
2. The man had cut the tree down before we could stop him.
3. I had sent the package before I heard from you.
4. You had heard the news by that time.
5. We had finished our game by four o'clock.
6. When I had seen everything in New York, I went on to Boston.

Give the past perfect tense of the verbs *come*, *try*, *say*, *run*, and *play*.

Write ten sentences containing verbs in the past perfect tense.

Future Perfect Tense. Now suppose that one Saturday afternoon you have the car out in the driveway and are washing it. Your father comes out to tell you that the members of a committee are coming to see him at three o'clock, and will probably want to leave their cars in the driveway. Since the driveway is short, the question of space arises. But you reply, "I *shall have driven* the car into

the garage by three o'clock." The verb phrase *shall have driven* denotes that the act of driving the car into the garage will be completed or perfected at or before a definite time in the future, namely three o'clock, and the tense of this verb phrase is called the **future perfect tense**.

The **future perfect tense** denotes that an action will be completed or perfected at or before a definite time in the future.

The future perfect tense of the verb *drive* is as follows:

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I shall have driven	We shall have driven
You will have driven	You will have driven
He, she, or it will have driven	They will have driven

How is the future perfect tense of the verb *drive* formed? The future perfect tense of a verb is always formed by prefixing the auxiliaries *shall have* (in the first person) and *will have* (in the second and third persons), to its past participle.

What is the tense of the verb phrase in each of the following sentences? How do you know?

1. I shall have finished my lesson before four o'clock.
2. You will have taken the train before that time.
3. He will have received the package by Thursday.
4. We shall have found the ball by the time you come back.
5. These buds will have blossomed by this time tomorrow.

Give the future perfect tense of the following verbs: *see*, *write*, *finish*, *begin*, and *speak*.

Write ten sentences containing verbs in the future perfect tense.

How is the present perfect tense formed? the past perfect? the future perfect? Illustrate each of your answers.

Progressive Forms. What is a progressive verb form? (See Lesson 67.) Notice that the tenses of the following verb phrases are present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect, but that they are progressive forms.

1. I *have been sewing* all the afternoon.
2. I *had been digging* in the garden when they came to see me.
3. If I start now, I *shall have been walking* ten minutes by the time you leave the house.

There are progressive forms for all persons and numbers of the perfect tenses as well as for the simple tenses.

Exercise. Point out the predicate verbs and verb phrases in the sentences below, and tell the tense of each.

1. Gladys will have started her garden before you come again.
2. When she has studied music a year longer she will probably play very well.
3. She had taken only a few lessons when you heard her play.
4. He had been running so fast that he was exhausted.
5. If he had gone that way he would have seen them.
6. We have always remembered those good times.
7. We shall have reached home by that time.
8. When you telephoned they had been gone an hour.
9. I think he has never heard that story.
10. Had you been waiting long when we saw you?

133. Principal Parts of Verbs

Below are given the first^s person singular forms of the verb *drive* in the simple and in the perfect tenses.

<i>Present Tense</i>	I drive
<i>Past Tense</i>	I drove
<i>Future Tense</i>	I shall drive
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	I have driven
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	I had driven
<i>Future Perfect Tense</i>	I shall have driven

If you look carefully at these six tense forms of the verb *drive*, you will see that only three different forms of the verb *drive* itself are used. They are (1) the present tense form *drive*, (2) the past tense form *drove*, and (3) the past participle *driven*. In order to form all the tenses of a verb it is necessary to know these three parts. These three important parts of a verb are called the **principal parts** of the verb. The principal parts of *drive* are: Present, *drive*; Past, *drove*; Past Participle, *driven*.

Give the principal parts of the verbs *walk*, *work*, *wish*, *go*, *do*, *come*, *try*, *say*, *run*, *play*, *see*, *write*, *finish*, *begin*, and *speak*.

Below are given the principal parts of three different verbs. Read them carefully.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
move	moved	moved
look	looked	looked
creep	crept	crept

You will notice that the verb *move* forms the past tense and the past participle by adding the ending *d*; the verb *look*, by adding the ending *ed*, and the verb *creep* by changing the vowels *ee* to *e* and adding *t*. All but about one hundred and fifty verbs form the past tense and past participle by adding the ending *d*, *ed*, or *t*. How does the past participle of these verbs compare with the form used in the past tense?

Now notice the principal parts of the following verbs:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
drink	drank	drunk
draw	drew	drawn

You see that these verbs form the past tense and past participle in different ways. It is in the case of such verbs that you will need to be most careful to distinguish between the past tense and the past participle.

Below are the principal parts of a number of verbs which you should learn to use correctly. First use each of them in a sentence; as,

<i>Present Tense</i>	I am happy today.
<i>Past Tense</i>	I was happy yesterday.
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	I have been happy all day.

Next learn the principal parts of every verb in this list. In learning them you will find it helpful to put the auxiliary *have* before each past participle; as, *am, was, have been*. This will help you to remember which form of the verb is the past participle and which is the past tense form.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
am	was	been	come	came	come
begin	began	begun	do	did	done
blow	blew	blown	draw	drew	drawn
bite	bit	bitten	drink	drank	drunk
break	broke	broken	drive	drove	driven
bring	brought	brought	drown	drowned	drowned
burst	burst	burst	eat	ate	eaten
buy	bought	bought	fall	fell	fallen
catch	caught	caught	fight	fought	fought
choose	chose	chosen	fit	fitted	fitted

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
flee	fled	fled	set	set	set
flow	flowed	flowed	shake	shook	shaken
fly	flew	flown	shine	shone	shone
get	got	got	sing	sang	sung
give	gave	given	sink	sank	sunk
go	went	gone	sit	sat	sat
grow	grew	grown	speak	spoke	spoken
hang	hanged	hanged	spring	sprang	sprung
hang	hung	hung	stand	stood	stood
have	had	had	steal	stole	stolen
know	knew	known	strike	struck	struck
lay	laid	laid	swim	swam	swum
leave	left	left	swing	swung	swung
lend	lent	lent	take	took	taken
lie	lay	lain	teach	taught	taught
lose	lost	lost	tear	tore	torn
loose	loosed	loosed	tell	told	told
ride	rode	ridden	throw	threw	thrown
ring	rang	rung	wear	wore	worn
rise	rose	risen	weave	wove	woven
run	ran	run	wring	wrung	wrung
see	saw	seen	write	wrote	written

Give the entire present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect tenses of a few of the verbs in this list each day until the principal parts and the tenses of all are thoroughly learned.

The most common errors in the use of verbs are due to the use of the past tense for the past participle, as in the sentence "I have went." Here the past tense *went* is used incorrectly for the past participle *gone*. You must also be careful not to use the past participle for the past tense as

in the sentence "I seen him." Here the past participle *seen* is incorrectly used for the past tense *saw*. *Remember that the past participle should never be used without an auxiliary, and that the past tense should never be used with an auxiliary.*

The verbs *can, may, must, ought, shall* and *will* do not have past participles, and they are called *defective verbs*.

Exercises. A. In the following sentences, decide which verb form is correct. In most of the sentences you will have to choose between the past tense form and the past participle. Always give the reason for your choice.

1. The horse has (run, ran) away.
2. It (begun, began) to rain.
3. He has (broken, broke) his book strap.
4. He (brung, brought) it with him.
5. The balloon has (busted, burst, bursted).
6. I (been, was) there.
7. They have (chosen, chose) their captain.
8. I (come, came) yesterday.
9. He has (come, came).
10. I (done, did) it.
11. He has (did, done) it.
12. We (drug, dragged) the lake.
13. I have (drew, drawn) three pictures.
14. He has (drank, drunk) it all.
15. We (drunk, drank) it all.
16. He has (ate, eaten) all the apples.
17. Has he (eaten, ate) the apples?
18. The leaves have (fell, fallen).
19. The birds have (flew, flown) away.
20. Has he (gone, went) away?
21. They have (went, gone) to town.
22. I (got, have, have got) it in my pocket.

23. He (give, gave) it to me.
24. He has (give, gave, given) it all away.
25. It (grew, grewed) six inches in one night.
26. We have (grew, grown) them every year.
27. I (knewed, knew) it.
28. I have (knew, known) it for a long time.
29. I (laid, lay) in the hammock.
30. I have (laid, lain) it on the table.
31. Has the bell (rung, rang)?
32. It (rung, rang) an hour ago.
33. The sun has (rose, risen, raised).
34. The airplane (raised, rose).
35. The man (rose, raised).
36. The man (rose, raised) himself upon one elbow.
37. He (run, ran) away.
38. He must have (run, ran) away.
39. Has he (run, ran) like that all the way?
40. I (seen, saw) her on the corner.
41. Has any one else (saw, seen) her?
42. I have (saw, seen) that before.
43. Have you (saw, seen) it before?
44. I haven't (set, sat) down much today.
45. He is (setting, sitting) under the trees.
46. Have you been (setting, sitting) here long?
47. He (sat, set) it down.
48. I have (shook, shaken) this apple tree.
49. I (sung, sang) in the choir last Sunday.
50. Have you ever (sang, sung) in it?
51. I have often (sung, sang) in it.
52. I have (spoke, spoken) my mind.
53. Have you (spoke, spoken) to him about it yet?
54. We (swum, swam) to the bridge.
55. Have you ever (swum, swam) that far?
56. No, but my brother has (swum, swam) there and back.

57. He has (taken, took, tooken) it with him.
58. He shouldn't have (took, taken) all of it.
59. Well, has he really (took, taken, tooken) all of it?
60. He (taught, teached) me to throw a curve.
61. He has (thrown, throwed, threw) curves for a year.
62. I (throwed, threw) three.
63. Haven't you (thrown, threw) more than three?
64. He has (worn, wore) it for a year.
65. Have you (wore, worn) your new hat yet?
66. He has (written, wrote) to the principal.
67. What has he (wrote, written) about?
68. I (druv, drove) to town.
69. I have (drove, driven) there often.

B. In class, let the first pupil in one row read sentence 1 in Exercise *A*, using the correct form, but without giving the reason. The pupil behind him will immediately give the second sentence correctly, and so on to the last pupil in the row. Then begin with the second row. Proceed as rapidly as you can. When the last pupil in the class has taken part, begin with the first pupil again and proceed until the last sentence has been given. The class should be able to finish this whole exercise in three or four minutes.

C. Analyze the correct form of each of the sentences in Exercise *A*.

134. How to Use a Dictionary

You have already had practice in looking up the spelling, pronunciation, and meaning of words in dictionaries. As you progress in your study of grammar you will find the dictionary increasingly helpful.

The information which an unabridged dictionary gives about each word is usually:

1. Spelling and syllabication
2. Pronunciation
3. Part of speech
4. Derivation
5. Meanings
6. Synonyms (if any)

Suppose that you have come across the word *hostility* in your reading. In the dictionary you will find:

hos-til'-i-ty (hōs-tīl'ī-tī), *n*; *pl.*-ties (-tīz) [L. *hostilitas*: cf. F. *hostilité*]

This tells you, first, how the word is spelled, how it should be divided into syllables, and how it should be accented. Next, in parentheses, is given the pronunciation. The curved marks over the vowels indicate that the vowels are short. What mark is used to show that a vowel is long? Whenever you are in doubt as to what a symbol of pronunciation means, refer to the key to pronunciation given in the front of the dictionary, or at the bottom of the page.

The letter *n* shows that the word *hostility* is a noun. All such abbreviations as *n* are listed and explained in the front of the dictionary.

The abbreviation *pl.* stands for *plural*. *-ties* shows us how the last syllable of the plural is spelled, and *(-tīz)* indicates the pronunciation of the plural.

Next is given the derivation. It is suggested that the word *hostility* comes from the Latin word *hostilitas*. A similar word from the French, *hostilité*, is also given. *Cf.* means *confer* or *compare*.

The meanings of the word are then stated, and lastly, following the abbreviation *Syn.*, are synonyms of the word.

Look up each of the nouns given below, and following the

form used in the dictionary, give the spelling and syllabication, the pronunciation, the part of speech, the meaning, and the synonyms (if any) of each.

chauffeur	streak	murmur
occurrence	whir	shriek
possession	buz	December

Now suppose that you wish to know the principal parts of the verb *spring*. You will find them given in the dictionary in this way:

spring (sprĭng), *v.i.*; *pret.* sprang (sprǎng) or sprung (sprŭng);
p.p. sprung; *p.pr.* & *vb. n.* springing.

The present tense form, *spring*, is given first. The abbreviation *pret.* stands for *preterite*, which is another name for the past tense. Therefore the principal parts of this verb, as given in the dictionary are: Present, *spring*; Past, *sprang* or *sprung*; Past Participle, *sprung*. The abbreviations *p.pr.* and *vb.n.* stand for *participle present* and *verbal noun*, but at present you are not concerned with these terms. The *v.i.* means *verb intransitive*. When a verb is transitive, this fact is indicated by the letters *v.t.*

After this, the derivation of the verb is given, and then its various meanings are stated. In the case of the verb *spring*, no synonyms are given.

Look up these verbs in the dictionary, and following the form used in the dictionary, report upon the six items mentioned at the beginning of this lesson.

migrate	whisk	quiver
flutter	flick	vibrate
penetrate	exterminate	recede

Look up the following adjectives and adverbs, and make a similar report.

tawdry	sullen	deftly	stealthily
luminous	shrill	tenaciously	persistently
hoarse	pungent	slyly	monotonously

135. Descriptive Details

Read the following descriptive paragraph. Does it contain many descriptive details? Is it interesting?

It was a gypsy encampment. It was on one side of a lane. A rill tinkled by. A teakettle was hanging over a fire and two gypsies sat gossiping. There were children sleeping on straw; donkeys were grazing, and a dog was lying before the fire. Some of the gypsies were dancing to music played by a stripling.

Now read the following description of the same subject, which contains descriptive details. Is this interesting? What has made this difference?

It proved to be a gypsy encampment, consisting of three or four little cabins, or tents, made of blankets and sail cloths, spread over hoops that were stuck in the ground. It was on one side of a green lane, close under a hawthorne hedge, with a broad beech tree spreading above it. A small rill tinkled along close by, through the fresh sward that looked like a carpet.

A teakettle was hanging by a crooked piece of iron over a fire made from dry sticks and leaves, and two old gypsies in red cloaks sat crouched on the grass, gossiping over their evening cup of tea; for these creatures, though they live in the open air, have their ideas of fireside comforts. There were two or three children sleeping on the straw with which the tents were littered; a couple of donkeys were grazing in the lane, and a thievish-looking dog was lying before the fire. Some of the

younger gypsies were dancing to the music of a fiddle, played by a tall, slender stripling in an old frock coat, with a peacock's feather stuck in his hatband.

WASHINGTON IRVING

Read the first sentence of the first illustration, then the first sentence of the second. What details have been added which make the picture more vivid? Continue to compare sentence with sentence throughout the two descriptions.

Notice that the first paragraph of the second description gives you a general impression of the appearance of the camp, its size, and its location. Compare this impression with that received from the first three sentences of the first description.

The second paragraph of the second description gives striking details of the camp: the fire, the kettle, the donkey, the dog, the old gypsies, the children, and the young people. Make a list of the descriptive details which seem to you especially good. What feeling or mood does this description express—joy, contentment, worry, sadness, weariness? What words suggest this feeling?

Exercise. With the importance of significant descriptive details in mind, outline and describe one of the following subjects, or one of your own choosing. Do not give all the details which occur to you. Choose only those which are really important in making others see the picture that you have in mind.

1. A City Railway Station
2. A Country Railway Station
3. The City in Winter
4. The Country in Winter
5. An Odd-Looking Stranger
6. A Thunderstorm
7. The House Across the Way
8. A Train at Night

136. Use of Vivid Words

In order to make descriptive details vivid, you will need to use words which are specific. Turn again to Lessons 72, 89, and 92, and review what you have already learned about choosing verbs, adjectives, and adverbs which are vivid.

Read the following selection from *David Copperfield*, and notice how clear the descriptive details are.

As I gazed upon the schoolroom into which he took me, I thought it the most forlorn and desolate place I had ever seen. I see it now—a long room, with three long rows of desks, and bristling all round with pegs for hats and slates. Scraps of old copy-books and exercises litter the dirty floor. Some silkworms' houses, made of these materials, are scattered over the desks. Two miserable little white mice, left behind by their owner, are running up and down in a musty castle made of pasteboard and wire, looking in all the corners with their red eyes for anything to eat. A bird, in a cage very little bigger than himself, makes a mournful rattle now and then in hopping on his perch, two inches high, or dropping from it. But the bird neither sings nor chirps. There is a strange, unwholesome smell upon the room, like mildewed corduroys, sweet apples wanting air, and rotten books. There could not well be more ink splashed about if the room had been roofless from its first construction, and the skies had rained, snowed, hailed, and blown ink through the varying seasons of the year.

CHARLES DICKENS—Adapted

What was the shape of this room? How do you know? Where did the children hang their hats? What else was hung on these pegs? Was the floor clean? How do you know? What live creatures were in the room? Were they contented? How do you know? Was this a pleasant room? What makes you think so?

What idea is conveyed by the word *bristling* in the second sentence which would not have been conveyed if the author had said "and all round were pegs for hats and slates"? Why is the noun *rattle* in the fourth sentence a better word to use here than the noun *noise*?

Point out all the words which add to the vividness of this description. Give a synonym of each, and tell why the word used in the selection serves the purpose intended better than the synonym.

Exercises. A. After reading each of the following selections, tell what picture is in your mind. What words in the selections make the mental pictures clear? One writer has called such words magical words, because they paint pictures in your mind as if by magic. What words add *color, sound, motion, or deep feeling*?

1. The long light shakes across the lakes.

ALFRED LORD TENNYSON

2. We were sitting in the veranda in the dead, hot, close air, gasping and praying that the black-blue clouds would let down and bring the cool. Very, very far away, there was a faint whisper. It was the roar of the rain, breaking over the river.

RUDYARD KIPLING

3. To the cool of our deep verandas—
To the blaze of our jewelled main—
To the night, to the palms in the moonlight,
And the fire-fly in the cane!

RUDYARD KIPLING

4. The sharp and peevish tinkle of the shop-bell had made itself audible.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE

5. And the silken sad uncertain rustling of each purple curtain

Thrilled me—filled me with fantastic terrors never felt before.

EDGAR ALLAN POE

6. The gray sea and the long black land;
 And the yellow half-moon large and low;
 And the startled little waves that leap
 In fiery ringlets from their sleep,
 As I gain the cove with pushing prow,
 And quench its speed in the slushy sand.

ROBERT BROWNING

7. Fleur, leaning out of the window, heard the hall clock's muffled chime of twelve, the tiny splash of a fish, the sudden shaking of an aspen's leaves in the puffs of breeze that rose along the river, the distant rumble of a night train, and time and again the sounds which none can put a name to in the darkness.

JOHN GALSWORTHY

B. Make a list of ten words which suggest sound; ten suggesting color; ten, swift motion; and ten suggesting happiness. Use each one in a sentence.

C. Make the following sentences more vivid by adding descriptive details, and by using verbs which are more specific than those now used. For instance, in the sentence "He went into the room," the verb *went* might be replaced by any one of a number of more specific and expressive verbs, according to the meaning you desire to express. If "he" were in a hurry he might *run, leap, dash, dart, spring,* or *rush* into the room. If he were not in a hurry, he might *saunter* or *stroll*. If he were trying not to disturb some one, he might *steal* into the room. An old man might *totter* into the room. A child might *creep* or *toddle*. We might therefore say:

1. The cat, its eyes wide with terror, and its tail bristling, darted into the room.
2. A hush descended upon the class as a tall, light-haired boy, his cap in his hand, and his books slung over his shoulder, sauntered into the schoolroom.

Following the directions and suggestions given, rewrite each of these sentences in two ways:

1. He went into the room.
2. The fire burned.
3. The man laughed.
4. The boy looked about him.
5. The airplane fell to the ground.
6. The trees moved in the wind.
7. The boy crept into the hut.
8. The steamer moved down the harbor.
9. The clouds are moving across the sky.
10. The wind whistled down the chimney.
11. Bells sounded.
12. Lights shone.

D. Write a paragraph describing one of the following. Use words which suggest color, sound, and motion.

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. A summer sunset | 6. A flower garden |
| 2. A winter sunset | 7. A store window |
| 3. Mountains in winter | 8. A winter evening |
| 4. A sailboat on a windy day | 9. A parade |
| 5. The woods in a storm | 10. A boat race |

137. Short Talks on Courtesy

Probably all of you have often been told to be courteous. No doubt, too, you usually wish to be so. But if you ever become impatient, and find yourself inclined to think that

courtesy does not really matter, stop to consider what courtesy means. Courtesy is not, as some people think, merely a matter of form. It is really a way of showing respect and consideration. True courtesy is prompted by kindly feeling for other people, and because it is prompted by kindly feeling upon your part, it tends to make other people kindly disposed toward you. Good manners will be very helpful indeed in making life run smoothly and pleasantly for you, and for the people with whom you come in contact.

Of course the people to whom you most wish to show helpfulness and consideration are the members of your own family. What are some of the ways in which you can show courtesy in your own home? Helping your mother with the housework; doing any work which your father wishes done; being so careful about your own belongings that you never have to be asked to put them away;—all these are acts of courtesy, for they are prompted by consideration of others.

Both boys and girls should take especial care to be courteous to older people. If an older person comes into a room in which you are seated, show your respect by rising, and do not resume your place until the older person is seated in a comfortable chair. Be quick to see the needs of an older person, and politely and unobtrusively perform any small services which will add to his or her comfort. In conversation with older people, remember that they have had more experience in life than you, and that their opinions are of more value than yours. Do not interrupt. But if you are included in the conversation, express your ideas, when asked to do so, quietly and modestly. The same thoughtfulness and consideration which boys show to older people should be shown by them to girls of their own age.

The secret of good manners is to think of the other person's comfort and convenience, and act accordingly. In public, as in your home, be considerate of others. A person who takes up more than his share of space at table, who eats noisily or greedily, and talks loudly, or about unpleasant subjects, is not an agreeable table companion. A person who snatches a seat for himself when people older or less strong are standing, or who pushes or needlessly jostles his fellow-travelers, shows an unmannerly lack of consideration. Sometimes this lack of consideration is due to thoughtlessness; sometimes it is due to real selfishness. Do not lay yourself open to criticism on either score.

The keynote of proper behavior in public is unobtrusiveness. Do not laugh so loudly that strangers turn to look—not in admiration, but in annoyance. If you are with friends, talk quietly, so that the people about you are not disturbed.

Of course similar rules of courtesy apply to your behavior in school. Be thoughtful of other people, modest, and respectful.

These are a few of the ways in which courtesy may be shown. But there is a great deal more that might be said upon the subject. Why, in your opinion, is courtesy desirable at home? in school? in business? in public? Illustrate.

Exercise. Let the class be divided into eight groups, each group to be assigned one of the following subjects:

Ways of Showing Courtesy:

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. to Women | 5. in School |
| 2. to One's Family | 6. in Street Cars |
| 3. to Older Persons | 7. at Public Meetings |
| 4. to Guests in One's Home | 8. at Table |

The members of each group will meet, discuss the subject assigned, and prepare a written report upon it. Each group will then choose one of its members to give the report orally in class. After the eight reports have been given orally in class, the eight written reports may be collected in a "Courtesy Book" which shall be kept for reference.

138. Correct Use of Words

What is the difference between the correct and the incorrect forms given below? Your dictionary will tell you why, in the first sentence, the word *person* should be used instead of the word *party*, and will answer similar questions for each of the remaining sentences.

Incorrect

Who was the tall *party* to whom you were talking?
 I am "Yours *respectively*."
 The pictures are *both alike*.
 Let us all *coöperate together*.
 Her hair is *different than* mine.
 The *balance of us* went.
 He has been *everywheres*.
 You may not go *without* you ask.
 There are *less* pupils here today.
 I don't know *as* I can go.
 That is *alright*.
 The hotel was *all ready* full.
 I am *already* to go.

Correct

Who was the tall *person* to whom you were talking?
 I am "Yours *respectfully*."
 The pictures are *alike*.
 Let us all *coöperate*.
 Her hair is *different from* mine.
 The *rest of us* went.
 He has been *everywhere*.
 You may not go *unless you ask*.
 You may not go *without asking*.
 There are *fewer* pupils here today.
 I don't know *that* I can go.
 That is *all right*.
 The hotel was *already* full.
 I am *all ready* to go.

Write sentences showing a correct use of the following words: *party, respectively, balance, less, as, already, all ready,* and *without*.

139. Substantive Clauses

1. The letter which I wrote yesterday has not yet been mailed.
2. He will enter high school before his sister enters the seventh grade.

Are these sentences simple, compound, or complex? How do you know? What does the subordinate clause in the first sentence modify? What kind of clause is it? Point out the subordinate clause in the second sentence. What does this clause modify? What kind of clause is this?

Besides being used like adjectives and adverbs, clauses are also used like nouns. You know that nouns may be used as subject substantives. In what other ways may they be used? Read the following sentences carefully, noticing how the italicized clauses are used:

1. *That he is not polite* grieves me.
2. I know *why Nell is not coming*.
3. My opinion is *that you are right*.
4. He spoke of *what you had done*.

In the first sentence, what clause is the subject of the verb *grieves*? In the second sentence, what kind of verb is *know*? How is the subordinate clause in this sentence used? In the third sentence, what kind of verb is *is*? What clause explains the subject *opinion* in sentence 3? How is the subordinate clause in sentence 4 used? You see from these sentences that a subordinate clause may be used (1) as the subject of a verb, (2) as the direct object of a verb, (3) in

the place of a predicate word after a linking verb, and (4) as the object of a preposition. These clauses are used just as nouns are used. Since any word or group of words used like a noun may be spoken of as a substantive, a clause used like a noun is called a **substantive clause** or a **noun clause**.

A substantive clause (noun clause) is a subordinate clause used like a noun.

You can always detect a noun clause by the fact that it always answers the question *what*. Apply this test to the four sentences above.

Substantive clauses are usually introduced by the conjunction *that*, by the pronouns *who*, *whom*, *which*, *what*, or by the adverbs *how*, *why*, *where*, *when* used as conjunctions. Sometimes a substantive clause has no introductory word to connect it with the principal clause; as, He said, "I am right." In this sentence *I am right* is used as the object of the verb *said*.

Exercise. Point out the principal and the subordinate clauses in the following sentences; tell how each subordinate clause is used, what kind of clause it is, and by what word it is introduced, in this way:

In the sentence *I know why you came*, the principal clause is *I know why you came*. The subordinate clause is *why you came*. This clause is used as the object of the verb *know* and is therefore a substantive clause. It is introduced by the adverb *why*, and answers the question *what*.

Notice that in pointing out a principal clause which has a substantive clause as its subject, object, or predicate word, the substantive clause must be given as part of the principal clause.

1. I know why you came.
2. I remember why you went.
3. That the moon and the sun cause tides is a well-known fact.
4. The truth is that I have lost the book.
5. I have not learned how candy is made.
6. James knows where the largest violets grow.
7. I was thinking of what he said.
8. He answered, "I know better."
9. We have never forgotten that wasps sting.
10. Who said that you might do that?
11. I think that it is true.
12. I believe that he is honest.
13. This is what I mean.
14. Do you see what I have found?
15. I know that you are my friend.
16. What he wants I cannot discover.
17. That you would come was understood by all of us.
18. I do not know which is yours.
19. We wondered what you were doing.
20. We thought that we should soon see you.

140. Sequence of Tenses

What kind of sentences are the following? What is the tense of the verb in the principal clause in each sentence?

1. I know that he *is* tired.
2. I know that he *was* hurt.
3. I know that he *will be* late.

Now notice the subordinate clauses. What is the tense of *is?* of *was?* of *will be?* In each of these sentences the tense of the verb in the principal clause is present, but the tense of the verb in the subordinate clause is present in the

first sentence, past in the second sentence, and future in the third sentence. The relation of the tense of the verb in the subordinate clause to the tense of the verb in the principal clause is called **sequence of tenses**.

When the verb in the principal clause is in the present tense, the verb in the subordinate clause may be in any tense.

What is the tense of the verb in the principal clause of each of the following sentences?

1. I knew yesterday that he *was* tired.
2. I knew yesterday that he *had been* hurt.
3. I knew yesterday at nine that we *should be* late.

What is the tense of *was* in the first sentence? of *had been* in the second? *Should* is the past of *shall* and *should be*, in the third sentence, is also a past tense.

The verb *knew* is in the past tense. That is, the act of knowing took place in the past. The act of being late, as expressed by the verb *should be*, also took place in the past, but it took place *after* the act of knowing. *Should be* denotes a time which is future with reference to the past time denoted by the verb *knew*. *Should be* is therefore said to be in the *past future* tense.

In each of these three sentences the verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, and the verb in the subordinate clause is in a past tense also.

When the verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, the verb in the subordinate clause should be in a past tense also.

When the verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, mistakes are sometimes made in the sequence of tenses. These sentences are correct. Read them carefully:

1. He said that he *could* lift the stone.
2. He thought that I *might* go.
3. He declared that he *would be* there.
4. He learned that we *should be* there.

Should is the past of *shall*, *would* the past of *will*, *could* the past of *can*, and *might* the past of *may*.

Since an indirect quotation is a complex sentence, the rule for sequence of tenses must be observed in the case of indirect quotations. Which of these sentences contains a direct quotation? which an indirect quotation?

1. She answered, "I think so."
2. She answered that she thought so.

You see that the past tense of the verb *answer* is used in both of these sentences. Why is the present tense of the verb *think* used in the first sentence? Give the rule which accounts for the use of the past tense of the verb *think* in the second sentence.

The present tense in the subordinate clause may follow the past tense in the principal clause when the thought expressed in the subordinate clause is still true at the present time; as,

1. Richard was remarking how clear the river is.
2. Edmund said that Louise sings as beautifully as ever.

Exercises. A. Write the following sentences correctly. Give the reason for the form you choose in this way:

In the first sentence, I choose *would*, the past tense form, because the verb *promised* in the principal clause is in the past tense.

If both forms in parentheses are correct, write the sentence in two ways.

1. He promised that he (will, would) come.
2. He says that he (is, was) tired.
3. He said that he (is, was) tired.
4. He insisted that he (will, would) be there.
5. She said that she (can, could) cook.
6. He thought that he (will, would) not go.
7. They replied that they (do, did) not have to stay.
8. They thought of all the things they (can, could) do.
9. She went where she (has, had) a more comfortable home.
10. They thought we (are, were) snobbish.
11. I did not think I (shall, should) accomplish it.
12. If I go to town, (will, would) you go?
13. He saw that the boy (is, was) unhappy.
14. I thought that you (are, were) away.
15. We hoped that the weather (will, would) be pleasant.
16. All tourists reported that the Garden of Gods (is, was) one of the wonders of Colorado.

B. Change the direct quotations in the following sentences to indirect quotations, and apply the rule for sequence of tenses. As you reconstruct each sentence give your reason for the tense used in the subordinate clause.

1. He said, "I will not go."
2. He replied, "You do not need to go."
3. "Are you badly hurt?" I asked him.
4. "I think not, sir," replied William.
5. "Can you do it?" the mate inquired.
6. "I may be able to do it," answered the sailor.
7. "They will never gain the shore," said the officer.
8. "My lads," said he, "we've had a hot day."
9. "Now we've only one man to rely on!" cried the captain.
10. "Who is that?" asked the child.

141. Interrogative Pronouns

You have already studied three kinds of pronouns: personal, possessive, and demonstrative. Give illustrations of each kind. In this lesson you will take up still another kind of pronoun.

1. *Who* sent you the present?
2. *Whom* did you see?
3. To *whom* are you writing?
4. *Which* do you like best?
5. *What* can I do for you?

What kind of sentences are these? What word in each sentence shows you that a question is being asked? When the pronouns *who*, *whom*, *which*, and *what*, are used in asking questions as in the sentences above, they are called **interrogative pronouns**.

An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun that is used in asking questions.

The forms of the interrogative pronoun *who* for both the singular and plural are:

<i>Nominative</i>	who
<i>Accusative</i>	whom

The interrogative pronouns *who* and *whom* refer to persons.

The possessive adjective *whose* is also used in asking questions; as, "*Whose* book is that?" Here *whose* is a possessive adjective modifying the noun *book*. Notice that *who's* means *who is*. Do not confuse it with *whose*.

You may have had difficulty at times in deciding whether to use *who* or *whom* in questions; as, "*Who* did you see?" or "*Whom* did you see?"; "*Who* did you hit?" or "*Whom*

did you hit?" Whether you use the nominative *who* or the accusative *whom* depends upon the construction of the sentence. In the sentence "*Who* did it?" *who* is the subject and is therefore in the nominative case. If the sentence "*Whom* did you see?" is read "You did see *whom*?" it is clear that *whom* is the object of the verb *did see*, and is therefore in the accusative case.

Sometimes mistakes are made in the use of *who* and *whom* after prepositions; as, "*Who* did you speak to?" If this sentence is rearranged so that it reads, "You did speak to *who*?" you see at once that *who* is used as the object of the preposition *to*. The object of a preposition must be in the accusative case. Since *who* is the nominative case-form, this use of *who* is incorrect. It should be replaced by the accusative case-form *whom*. The correct form is "*Whom* did you speak to?"

The interrogative pronouns *what* and *which* have only one form.

Which and *what* may also be used as interrogative adjectives, as in these sentences:

Which picture do you prefer?

What road did he take?

Exercises. *A.* In the following sentences point out the interrogative pronouns, and give the case and the reason for the case of each.

1. Whom shall I call?
2. Whom do you mean?
3. By whom did you intend to send the message?
4. Whom are you talking to?
5. Who is she?
6. Whom are you referring to?

7. Who went to church with you?
8. Which do you wish?
9. Whom did you give your flower to?
10. Whom are you waiting for?
11. What do you want?

B. In each of the following sentences choose the correct form. Give the reason for your choice.

1. (Who, Whom) were you talking to?
2. For (who, whom) is the letter intended?
3. (Who, Whom) are those people?
4. Did you find out (who, whom) was king at that time?
5. (Who, Whom) did you play tennis with today?
6. Of (who, whom) were you talking?
7. (Who, Whom) should be asked to sing tonight?
8. (Who's, Whose) hat is this?
9. "(Who, Whom) do you mean?" I asked.
10. (Who, Whom) is left to mourn his loss?
11. (Who's, Whose) coming down the street?
12. Mary asked excitedly, "(Who, Whom) is it?"
13. (Who, Whom) are you writing that letter to?
14. (Who, Whom) found the money?
15. (Who, Whom) are you gathering those flowers for?
16. (Who, Whom) was he?
17. (Who, Whom) is that for?
18. (Who, Whom) is coming to see you?
19. (Who, Whom) did you invite to your party?
20. (Who, Whom) are you talking about?

142. Relative Pronouns

In Lesson 141 you learned how to use the interrogative pronouns *who* and *whom*. Now notice carefully the use of *who* and *whom* in these sentences:

1. I saw the man *who* did it.
2. I know the man *whom* you saw.

What kind of sentence is the first of these? Point out the principal clause; the subordinate clause. What word connects the two clauses? To what word in the principal clause does *who* refer? What do we call the word to which a pronoun refers? Has *who* any other use in this sentence than that of connecting the two clauses? What is this use?

Point out the subordinate clause in the second sentence. What word connects this clause with the principal clause? What is the antecedent of *whom*? In this sentence *whom* is the object of the verb *saw*.

Since *who* and *whom* in these sentences are used both as connecting or relating words, and as pronouns, they are called **relative pronouns**.

A relative pronoun is a pronoun used to join to its antecedent a subordinate clause of which it is a part.

The common relative pronouns are *who* (*whom*), *that*, *which*, and *what*. Compounds of *who*, *which*, and *what* may be formed by adding *ever* or *soever*; for instance, *whoever*, *whosoever*.

Who is the only relative pronoun that changes its form to denote case. Its forms, both for the singular and for the plural, are:

<i>Nominative</i>	who
<i>Accusative</i>	whom

The case of the relative pronoun is determined by its use in the subordinate clause. For instance, in the sentence "I saw the man *who* did it," *who* is in the nominative case. Why? In the sentence "I know the man *whom* you saw," the subordinate clause is *whom you saw*. When this clause

is stated *you saw whom*, it is clear that *whom* is the object of the verb *saw*, and is therefore in the accusative case. Relative pronouns, like interrogative pronouns, may also be used as objects of prepositions; as, "I know the man to *whom* you refer." The use of the relative pronoun in this sentence may readily be seen by reading the subordinate clause: *you refer to whom*. What is the case of *whom* in this sentence? Why?

Explain how each of the relative pronouns in the following sentences is used, state its case, and point out its antecedent:

1. I know the man *whom* you saw.
2. The boy *who* is here is my brother.
3. I know *who* you are.
4. This is the boy *whom* you saw.
5. Do you know the girl *who* found the book?
6. Show me the man *whom* the officer arrested.
7. Choose whomever you need.
8. Give the book to whoever calls for it.

Now notice the use of *whoever* and *whomever* in the following sentences:

1. I will invite *whoever* comes along.
2. I will invite *whomever* you suggest.
3. We shall give it to *whoever* deserves it most.
4. We shall give it to *whomever* we meet.

In the first of these sentences the subordinate clause *whoever comes along* is the object of the verb *invite*. In this clause *whoever* is the subject of the verb *comes* and is therefore in the nominative case. In the second sentence the subordinate clause *whomever you suggest* is the object of the verb *invite*. The relative pronoun in this clause is the object of the verb *suggest* and is therefore in the accusative case.

In the third sentence the subordinate clause *whoever deserves it most* is the object of the preposition *to*. The relative pronoun in this clause is the subject of the verb *deserves* and is therefore in the nominative case. In the fourth sentence the subordinate clause *whomever we meet* is the object of the preposition *to*. The relative pronoun in this clause is the object of the verb *meet* and is therefore in the accusative case.

The relative pronouns *which*, *that*, and *what* have the same form for the accusative as for the nominative.

Explain how the relative pronoun *which* is used in each of the following sentences, and point out its antecedent:

1. The book *which* you lent me has been returned.
2. He found the automobile *which* had been stolen.
3. I have found the book *which* was lost.
4. The fields through *which* we drove were beautiful.
5. The play *which* we saw last Saturday was very good.

You may have a little difficulty in classifying the word *that*, because *that* is sometimes used as a conjunction, and sometimes as a relative pronoun. You can always tell which it is by remembering that when it has no antecedent it is used as a conjunction; for instance, in the sentence "I know *that* you did it," *that* does not have an antecedent, and is therefore a conjunction. But in the sentence "I know the story *that* you are telling," *that* has an antecedent, *story*, and is therefore a relative pronoun.

Explain the use of the relative pronoun *that* in each of these sentences, and point out its antecedent. In what two sentences is *that* used as a conjunction? How do you know that it is a conjunction?

1. The story *that* I read last night was exciting.
2. I wish *that* you had gone with us.
3. The part *that* he played was a difficult one.
4. The train *that* he took was an hour late.
5. I am sorry *that* you cannot come.
6. The lesson *that* he studied was not the one assigned.

The relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that* always have antecedents, and they agree with their antecedents in person and number. For instance, in the sentence "The boy *who* is here is my brother," the antecedent of the relative pronoun *who* is *boy*. *Boy* is singular; consequently *who* is singular, and the verb is singular to agree with its subject *who*. On the other hand, in the sentence "The boys *who* are here are my brothers," the antecedent of *who* is *boys*. Since *boys* is plural, *who* is plural, and the plural verb, *are*, is necessary to agree with the subject *who*.

A. relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person and number.

Give the person and number, and the reason for the person and number of (1) the relative pronoun and (2) the italicized verb in each of these sentences.

1. The children who *were* here were playing hare-and-hounds.
2. The plants which *grew* there will come up again next year.
3. The lamp that *gives* more light than any of the others is out of order.
4. The pupil who *writes* the best story will be asked to read it in class.
5. The house which *has* a large maple tree in front of it is mine.

6. The man that *found* my purse returned it yesterday.
7. The girl who *found* my book is here.

Who or *whom* is used when the antecedent is a person; as, "The man *whom* you saw has gone." *Which* is used when the antecedent is a place or a thing; as, "The sled *which* you saw was mine." *That* may be used for either persons, places, or things; as, "The man *that* you saw has gone," and "The sled *that* you saw was mine."

Use *who*, *whom*, or *that* when the antecedent is a person; use *which* or *that* when the antecedent is a place or a thing.

Read the following sentences, filling the blanks with *who*, *whom*, or *which*. Explain in each case why the word which you supply is correct. What relative pronoun might have been used in every sentence. Why?

1. It was he — we saw at the store.
2. It was he — went to the store.
3. Was it Mary — sang the solo this morning?
4. Tom Sawyer is a boy — I like.
5. It is Jane for — I am buying this dress.
6. It was Alexander — conquered the Persians.
7. She is a girl — I do not like.
8. That is the desk — he prefers.
9. Those are the boys — found her purse.
10. These are the apples of — I spoke.
11. The pencil — I am using is dull.
12. The book from — he read was a new one.
13. The papers — she passed back to us were poor.
14. Those — the rest of the class wrote were good.
15. The girl — is diving from the raft is Laura.
16. He is the boy — you hurt.

In the case of the relative pronoun *what* the antecedent is not expressed, but is understood or implied. For instance,

in the sentences "I heard *what* you said," and "*What* you say is quite true," we may replace the relative pronoun *what* in this way: "I heard *that which* you said," and "*That which* you say is quite true." In such sentences *that* is the antecedent, and *which* is the relative pronoun. The relative pronoun *what* is always equivalent to the two words *that which*.

Explain the use of the relative pronoun *what* in each of the following sentences:

1. I understood *what* he meant.
2. I listened to *what* he said.
3. This is *what* we mean.
4. I know *what* is worrying them.
5. I have been thinking of *what* you told me.

The possessive adjective *whose* is also sometimes used to introduce a clause; as, "I asked him *whose* book that was."

Exercise. Tell which is the principal clause, and which the subordinate clause in each of these sentences. Point out the relative pronoun in each sentence, and the clause which it introduces. Give the person and number and the reason for the person and number of each relative pronoun. Then give the case, and the reason for the case of each.

1. The man whom you were talking to is my father.
2. The boy whom you just saw is my brother.
3. The men whom the officers captured have not been released.
4. It was my father who detained me.
5. The girl who was here this morning has gone.
6. I am asking to whom this coat belongs.
7. The boy who sings so well is a pupil of mine.
8. I told John, who told his brother, who told his sister.

9. The girl to whom the prize was given is in the eighth grade.
10. The girl who won the prize is in the eighth grade.
11. I could not hear what he said.
12. The books which I had left on the porch were ruined by the rain.
13. The flowers that bloom in her garden are unusually beautiful.
14. There are the Easter eggs which Jane has colored.
15. This is what I mean.
16. I wonder what he meant.
17. Call upon whoever volunteers.
18. Ask whomever you know best.
19. I mean what I say.
20. The people that I met yesterday live in Watertown.

143. Kinds of Conjunctions

Read the following sentences:

1. They were tired but happy.
2. He went down the road and into the pasture.
3. We wanted to go to the concert, but we could not get tickets.

What part of speech is *but*? *and*? Define this part of speech. Notice that in the first sentence the conjunction connects single words; in the second, phrases; and in the third, clauses.

What part of speech is *tired*? *Happy* is also a predicate adjective, modifying the subject *they*. Since *tired* and *happy* have the same use in the sentence, they are said to be of equal rank.

Do not forget that *and* indicates an addition, and *but* a contrast.

In the second sentence the phrases connected by the conjunction *and* are both adverbial phrases modifying the verb *climbed*, and are of equal rank.

What kind of sentence is the third? Since the clauses are both principal clauses they, too, are of equal rank. That is, they are coördinate clauses. What is the conjunction connecting them?

Since these conjunctions connect words, phrases, and clauses of equal rank they are said to be **coördinating**.

A coördinating conjunction is a conjunction used to connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank.

The conjunctions which connect the clauses of compound sentences are coördinating conjunctions. The most common coördinating conjunctions are *and*, *or*, *but*, and *for*.

The following conjunctions are usually used in pairs: *both—and*, *either—or*, *neither—nor*, *not only—but also*, *whether—or*.

These pairs of conjunctions are called **correlatives**. Learn them.

Point out the coördinating conjunctions in the following sentences. What words, phrases, or clauses do they connect? Are these words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank? How do you know? What correlative conjunctions are used?

1. Neither John nor his brother succeeded in solving the problem.
2. I must hurry, for I am already late.
3. He is not only a fine scholar, but also an excellent teacher.
4. Father said that either Robert or I might go.
5. The books have come, but I have had no time to read them.
6. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

7. In Rome and on the battlefield the power of Cincinnatus was supreme.
8. Soft coal is found in western Pennsylvania, but hard coal is found in eastern Pennsylvania.
9. The study of grammar is both interesting and instructive.
10. Run to school or you will be tardy.

Analyze the ten sentences above.

Now notice the following sentences:

1. We shall go coasting tomorrow if the snow does not melt.
2. I stayed at home today because my sled was broken.
3. We told him that we would wait for him.

Point out the principal and the subordinate clause in each of these sentences. What conjunctions join the subordinate clauses to the principal clauses? Since *if*, *because*, and *that* join clauses of unequal rank they are called **subordinating conjunctions**.

A subordinating conjunction is a conjunction that connects a subordinate clause with a principal clause.

Subordinating conjunctions are used in complex sentences.

The most common subordinating conjunctions are:

although	as far as	because	in order that	than	unless
as	as long as	before	since	that	until
as if	as though	if	so that	though	while

Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences. Tell how each conjunction is used, and what kind of conjunction it is.

1. Work while you can.
2. If you expect to find him you must go at once.
3. The weather is cooler because the wind has changed.
4. The meadow-lark's nest is not like the robin's, although they are both made of grass.

5. He has not been here since you went away.
6. The leader did not leave his post until all danger to the men was past.
7. Take care that you do not make a mistake.
8. He likes them better than I do.
9. He likes you better than he likes me.
10. She brought the book as she had promised.
11. They walked as if they were tired.
12. He sang as though he enjoyed it.
13. We did not know whether you could go.
14. He is as tall as his brother.
15. They will wait as long as they can.

Analyze the fifteen sentences above.

The words *however*, *moreover*, *therefore*, *nevertheless*, *still*, etc., are sometimes called **transitional conjunctions**. These conjunctions are usually used, not to connect clauses, but simply to refer to the preceding sentence, in this way:

The house is very reasonable in price. *Moreover*, it is in a desirable location.

Such a conjunction helps to make a smooth *transition* between sentences.

Exercise. Supply the conjunction in each of the following sentences. Tell whether the conjunction is coördinating or subordinating, and why. Are correlative conjunctions needed in any of these sentences?

1. We shall go home — it does not rain.
2. We are not going home — it is raining.
3. I do not care — he goes or stays.
4. He is taller — his sister.
5. He is stronger — I.
6. That boy is not so handsome — his brother is.

7. We called, — nobody was at home.
8. — the one — the other pleases us.
9. They will go, — I am mistaken.
10. The poor man has — friends, — relations, — money.
11. I will stay — your father comes home.
12. — it is getting late, I shall start home.
13. — we begged her to sing again, she refused.
14. I shall take an umbrella — I shall be prepared for rain.
15. We cannot go — that day is not a holiday.
16. — tomorrow is a holiday, we shall probably have time to work on our costumes.
17. — the train is late, we shall probably get home in time for supper.
18. — I had not followed the directions carefully, the candy would have been spoiled.
19. He will not go — his brother can go also.
20. Some boys are more interested in baseball — others.
21. They looked — they were not interested in the play.
22. We started very early — we might get there on time.
23. He was so happy — he made us feel happy too.
24. The roads were icy, — we could not use the automobile.

After you have written these sentences, analyze them.

144. Correct Use of Conjunctions

Remember that *like* is not a conjunction, and should never be used to connect clauses. In place of *like*, use *as*, or *as if*, which are always conjunctions. For instance, say, "Helen looks *as if* she were ill." What two clauses are connected by *as if* in this sentence? It would be incorrect to say, "Helen looks *like* she were ill." Why?

Like is sometimes a verb, and sometimes a preposition.

When it is a preposition it must have an object. For instance, in the sentence "She looks like Helen," *Helen* is the object of the preposition *like*. *Like* is therefore correctly used in this sentence. Give a sentence in which *like* is a verb.

Do not use *like* as a conjunction; use *as*, or *as if*, instead.

In each of the following sentences, choose the correct word or words, and give your reason:

1. It looks (like, as if) there were three stars.
2. He acts (like, as if) he were afraid.
3. It looks (like, as if) it were going to rain.
4. It seems (like, as if) it ought to be right.
5. The horse runs (like, as if) it were frightened.
6. Hold your racket (like, as) I do.
7. She acts (like, as if) she were tired.
8. She looks (like, as) her sister did a year ago.
9. She looks (like, as) her mother.
10. Dance (like, as) she does.

Write five sentences in which *like*, the preposition, is used correctly. Write five sentences in which the conjunction *as* is used correctly, and five in which the conjunction *as if* is used correctly.

Another point which you will need to notice about the use of *as* is that in negative statements *so—*as**, rather than *as—*as**, is correct. "He is not *so* well known *as* I am" is correct. "He is not *as* well known *as* I am" is incorrect. In affirmative statements, however, *as—*as** is correct; for example, "He is *as* well known *as* I am."

Choose the correct word in the following sentences, and give the reason for your choice:

1. The book was not (so, as) popular as its author had expected it would be.

2. We have (so, as) good a glee club as you will find in any of the schools you mention.
3. The debate was not (so, as) interesting as it should have been.
4. The house was not (as, so) far away as I had supposed.
5. We were not (so, as) tired as they were.

Write two sentences using *as—as*, and five using *so—as*, correctly.

Are *whether* and *if* coördinating or subordinating conjunctions? These two conjunctions should not be used one for the other. Each has its own specific meaning and use. Use *whether* in sentences in which the words *or not* are expressed, or may be inserted without changing the meaning of the sentence; as,

I cannot tell whether I shall pass the examination or not.
I do not know whether she will go.

In the first of these sentences the words *or not* are expressed. In the second sentence they are understood, and therefore may be inserted without changing the meaning of the sentence. Use *whether* when alternatives are involved. The conjunction *if* is sometimes incorrectly used for *whether* in such sentences as those above.

In such a sentence as, "*If* it does not rain I shall wear my new dress tomorrow," *if* is correctly used. Use *if* when a supposition is involved. Notice that *if* has the meaning of "provided that."

Choose the correct conjunction in these sentences, and explain why it is correct:

1. I will help you get the kitten out of the tree (if, whether) you wish me to.

2. We have not heard (whether, if) he has returned what he borrowed.
3. They do not know (if, whether) you wish them to come.
4. I will find out (if, whether) she has studied her lesson.
5. We do not know (whether, if) he has found the book.

Write two sentences in which the conjunction *if* is used correctly, and five in which the conjunction *whether* is used correctly. Tell why each is correct.

Exercises. A. Choose the correct word or words in each of the following sentences and give the reason for your choice:

1. She looked (as, like) her sister.
2. Play the game (as, like) the other boys are playing it.
3. We shall see (if, whether) he will go.
4. He handles the automobile (like, as) I handle it.
5. It looks (like, as if,) it would snow before long.
6. Your sister is (so, as) tall as you.
7. I am not (so, as) tall as my brother.
8. I think she will help you (if, whether) you ask her.
9. She reads her lesson (like, as) I do.
10. They look (like, as if,) they were disgusted.
11. He was not (so, as) happy in the country as at home.
12. Is he (as, so) strong as his brother?
13. He shouts (like, as if) I could not hear well.
14. Do it (as, like) he does.
15. Those apples are almost (so, as) good as ours.
16. Sew slowly, (like, as) I do.
17. That rose is not (so, as) pretty as this one.
18. Study faithfully, (like, as) your brother does.
19. Speak politely, (like, as) you were taught to do.
20. You need not take notes (if, whether) you are sure you can remember all that is said.

21. I am not sure (if, whether) I shall want to go.
22. Sing softly, (like, as) the altos do.

B. Analyze the correct form of each of these sentences.

145. Correct Use of Correlatives

You learned in Lesson 143 that coördinating conjunctions connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank. The correlatives *both—and*, *not only—but also*, *either—or*, and *neither—nor*, are coördinating conjunctions, and must be used to connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank.

In using the coördinating correlatives, be careful to place each before the same part of speech.

Point out the correlative conjunctions in the following sentence:

We must show not only in our words but also in our deeds that we are desirous of securing the good will of other nations.

Here each correlative precedes a preposition. It would be incorrect to say, "We must not only show in our words but also in our deeds that we are desirous of securing the good will of other nations," because in this case *not only* precedes a verb, and *but also* precedes a preposition. The only exception to the rule is that it is correct to place one correlative before a noun and the other before a pronoun; as, "*Either* Jane *or* I may go."

Correct the following sentences, and give the reason for the change made:

1. You must either give me a pencil or a pen.
2. Alice neither is allowed to go to school nor to town.
3. I not only have a book but also a pencil.

4. I have been both in Chicago and New York.
5. I will either write you a postal or a letter.
6. She is neither interested in music nor in art.
7. We not only saw his brother but also his sister.
8. They have traveled both in Europe and Asia.
9. She has either gone to Susan's or to Rachel's.
10. The girls made not only the costumes, but also furnished the music.

Exercise. Write eight sentences illustrating the correct use of the correlatives. Let two of these sentences contain the correlative conjunction *both—and*; two, *not only—but also*; two, *either—or*; and two, *neither—nor*.

146. Review—Clauses

Exercises. A. Point out the subordinate clauses in the following sentences. Tell how each subordinate clause is used, and what kind of subordinate clause it is.

1. I think that we should have much exercise.
2. My little brother does not know how old he is.
3. The oriole hangs his nest high in the tree where the wind can rock it like a cradle.
4. There was a book in the package which I left on the table.
5. I like a book which tells about the customs of people.
6. Before sugar can be placed on the retail market, it must be refined.
7. The little feathered songsters that beautify our world should never be killed.
8. When the rain falls the thirsty plants rejoice.
9. Da Vinci was a painter who lived long ago in Italy.
10. Let us go where the violets bloom.
11. I know that my composition is not perfect.

12. I shall show you how you may fold the paper.
13. The book that I want is not here.
14. John would not tell why he went away.
15. The farmers work until the sun sets.

B. In Exercise A what word introduces each subordinate clause? How is it used? What part of speech is it?

C. Analyze the sentences in Exercise A.

D. 1. *The girl went.* Expand this sentence until it contains an adjective; an adjectival phrase; an adjectival clause.

2. Write a sentence containing an adjective; an adjectival phrase; an adjectival clause.

3. *The boy shouted.* Expand this sentence until it contains an adverb; an adverbial phrase; an adverbial clause.

4. Write a sentence containing an adverb; an adverbial phrase; an adverbial clause.

5. *That is impossible.* Rewrite this sentence with a substantive clause, instead of *that*, as the subject.

6. *I have been thinking of your advice.* Rewrite this sentence so that it contains a substantive clause, instead of the words *your advice*. How is this substantive clause used?

7. Write four sentences showing the use of a substantive clause:

1. As the object of a verb
2. As the object of a preposition
3. As the subject of a verb
4. In place of a predicate word after a linking verb

147. Using Clauses Effectively

Although simple sentences are sometimes very effective, the use of sentences containing clauses gives variety to a

composition and helps to make it read smoothly. Try to improve your own language by using sentences containing clauses, as well as simple sentences. In expressing your ideas in compound and complex sentences, however, remember that only ideas which are related should be combined. It would, for instance, be sheer nonsense to combine in one sentence such ideas as,

1. Jane went to school yesterday, and Washington was a great general.
2. Martha is reading a magazine, but my dog is black.
3. We are sleepy, because Columbus discovered America.

It is obvious that the ideas in these clauses have no relation to each other, and so should not be connected by conjunctions. It would, on the other hand, be correct to say:

1. Jane went to school yesterday, and I am going tomorrow.
2. Martha is reading a magazine, but I am studying.
3. We are sleepy, because we have been out in the wind.

In the first sentence the two clauses are related because both are about going to school. It is therefore correct to connect them with the conjunction *and*. The second sentence tells about two activities which are going on at the same time, but which are dissimilar. It is therefore correct to combine them into one sentence, using the contrasting conjunction *but*. In the third sentence the subordinate clause, introduced by *because* gives the reason or cause of the fact stated in the principal clause.

Exercises. A. Combine the following simple sentences into compound or complex sentences, supplying the appropriate conjunction or relative pronoun in each case, and making any other changes necessary.

1. It is here. I want it.
2. You will succeed. You persevere.
3. He will be convicted. He is guilty.
4. This is a bird. It has been injured.
5. We desire an education. We are likely to obtain it
6. He sent for the girl. She came at once.
7. This is the boy. You wished to see him.

B. Put the facts in the following paragraph into two or three sentences. Be sure that your sentences are clear, and remember that in a complex sentence the most important idea should be stated in the principal clause, and the less important in the subordinate clause or clauses.

A fire swept through a section of the retail business district here today. It was in Pittsburgh. It destroyed many large buildings and a dozen or more small buildings. The large buildings were the Frank and Seder Department Store, the Grand Opera House, the Hilton Clothing Company. The loss is estimated at from three million to four million dollars.

C. Write in one sentence the following:

Four firemen were injured seriously. A dozen or more were very severely injured. They were removed to hospitals.

D. Write two sentences containing the following facts:

It appeared for a time as though the fire would sweep the entire square. Heavy fire walls finally stayed the progress of the flames. The fire is said to have started in J. G. McCrory and Company's. This is a five and ten cent store. It started soon after midnight.

E. Imagine that you are a reporter and write an article embodying the following information. Use complex sentences when you can. Remember, however, that a single

sentence may contain only thoughts which are closely related.

St. Paul and Minneapolis were snow-bound for twenty-four hours a few days ago, with the temperature fourteen degrees below zero—seventeen inches of snow fell—street car and railway communication was cut off—business practically was at a standstill and schools were closed for a day—trains arrived in the Twin Cities twenty-four hours late—the milk supply, for the most part dependent on the railroads, was less than half normal—shops and business houses were closed because clerks and laborers were unable to get down town—mail deliveries in the residence parts were not attempted—most of the people in the two cities stayed at home until the streets were cleared by city and street railway employees.

F. Write a report for a newspaper of a wedding, a party, an automobile race, a baseball game, a circus, a radio program, or a school play. Use as many complex sentences as possible, but be sure that the thoughts in a single sentence are related.

148. Business Letters—Letters of Complaint

Sometimes it is necessary to return articles that have been received by local delivery or by express or freight. It may be that the wrong article has been sent, or it may be that the article has been damaged in transit. Under these circumstances it is necessary to write a letter explaining that goods have been received in a damaged condition, or that the wrong article has been sent. In such a letter the writer should state clearly just what the difficulty is.

Is the following letter, written by Edgar S. Stanton to Clifton and Company, a good business letter? Is it clear? What must Clifton and Company do to meet the requirement he has set forth in his letter?

4568 Emerson Avenue
Toledo, Ohio
Dec. 16, 1929

Messrs. Clifton and Company
1629 State Street
Cleveland, Ohio

Gentlemen:

I received this morning the two lamps that you shipped me on December 10 by American Express. The floor lamp is in good condition, but the electric lamp, No. 14, is badly damaged. The base is slightly bent and the globe has a dent near the top.

I am returning the damaged lamp by express today. If you can send another lamp immediately, please do so. I must have it by December 23, or it will be of no use to me.

Very truly yours,

Edgar S. Stanton

Does this letter of reply by Clifton and Company show that they are going to meet Mr. Stanton's requirement?

CLIFTON AND COMPANY
Dealers in
ELECTRICAL SUPPLIES
1629 State Street
Cleveland, Ohio

December 19, 1929

Mr. Edgar S. Stanton
4568 Emerson Avenue
Toledo, Ohio

Dear Sir:

We thank you for returning the damaged lamp. Express is often handled rather roughly, and boxes containing fragile articles sometimes suffer. We are taking the matter up with the express company.

In the meantime we are sending you by American Ex-

press another electric table lamp, No. 14, which we hope will reach you in good condition before December 23.

Very truly yours,
CLIFTON AND COMPANY
Per S.

Exercise. Write appropriate letters upon each of the following subjects. If you prefer, select other subjects of your own choosing. Then exchange letters with a classmate and answer the letters that he has written.

1. You are a retail hardware dealer. A wholesale house has sent you a shipment of sleds, some of which are broken or damaged in other ways.
2. A book company has sent you a package of books. The package has been rain-soaked and twelve of the books are unsalable.
3. A gas company has torn up the pavement in front of your house in order to repair a gas main. Although three weeks have elapsed, the pavement has not been repaired.
4. Automobiles run too fast in front of your school building. Write a letter to your local newspaper containing the facts in regard to this situation. The secretary of an automobile club may read the letter and reply.
5. A clerk in a department store has been very discourteous to you. Write to the manager of the store.
6. There is a cross dog that bothers you on your way to and from school. Write a letter to the owner of the dog.
7. Write a letter to a firm from whom you purchased an order of athletic goods. When the package was received it was in bad condition and several articles were damaged. Remember that a courteous letter of explanation will bring the best results.
8. Your monthly magazine has not been coming regularly.

Write a courteous letter to the publishers, calling their attention to this unsatisfactory situation.

149. Correct Use of Modifiers

In using modifying words, phrases, or clauses, you must remember that modifiers should always be so placed as to convey the meaning intended.

People are often careless, for instance, in the use of the word *only*. Unless you place the word *only* directly before the word you intend it to modify, the wrong meaning is conveyed. In the sentence "She only invited Helen," *only* modifies the verb *invited*. The sentence means that she only *invited* Helen, and did not urge her. If this is the meaning the speaker intended to convey, the sentence is correct. But if the speaker meant that Helen was the only person invited, the sentence should read "She invited *only* Helen." In this case *only* modifies the noun *Helen*. If, on the other hand, the speaker wished to say that of several persons who might have invited Helen, one person alone did invite her, the sentence should be "Only she invited Helen." In this sentence *only* modifies the pronoun *she*.

You see from these illustrations that *only* is sometimes an adverb, and sometimes an adjective, and that its position changes the meaning of the sentence. *Only* should be placed just before the word you intend it to modify.

Explain what is meant by each of the following sentences:

1. Only Harry teased his cousin.
2. Harry only teased his cousin.
3. Harry teased only his cousin.

Exercises. A. Write each of these sentences in two other ways, by changing the position of *only*:

1. I only want one.
2. I see only one apple on the tree.
3. Only I touched the book.
4. I only took one piece of cake.
5. He only suggested Harry for the position.

You should also be careful to place phrases in such a way that the meaning is clear. In the sentence "Mr. Brewer heard about the soldiers' fighting the Indians at a banquet," the phrase *at a banquet* seems to modify the word *fighting*. But the phrase *at a banquet* is really related to *heard*, and is meant to tell where Mr. Brewer heard about the fighting. The sentence should read "At a banquet Mr. Brewer heard about the soldiers' fighting the Indians," or "Mr. Brewer heard, at a banquet, about the soldiers' fighting the Indians."

B. Notice how the modifiers are misplaced in the following sentences. Rewrite the sentences so that the meaning is clear. Give the reasons for the changes.

1. The kitten belongs to Ellen with white fur.
2. The man wrote the book with glasses.
3. A man was arrested with short hair.
4. He is to speak about the landing of the Pilgrims at the Music Hall tonight.
5. In the hall hangs a picture beautifully painted behind the door.
6. Lost, a cow belonging to an old woman, with brass knobs on her horns.
7. One of the combatants was unhurt, and the other received a wound in the arm of no importance.
8. A child was run over by an automobile four years old and wearing a pink dress.
9. There is a boy in the room with red hair.

10. You will find in the bookcase a book about football in a blue cover.

Clauses, too, are frequently misplaced. Tell what is wrong with the sentence "The building fell to the ground that was on fire." Where should the clause *that was on fire* be placed?

C. Rearrange the following sentences so that it is clear by the position of the clause what part of the sentence it modifies. Give the reason for any change you make.

1. The men fled to the woods that were without a leader.
2. He chose this location for his city which has proved to be a very poor one.
3. The others obtained their food from the river which was fish.
4. The man walked into the store that was sick.
5. The correspondence began just one month later which led to the surrender.
6. Then a man came into the room that was cross-looking.
7. The people climbed to the top of the mountains that were adventurous.
8. He was born in a little village that was destined to be president.
9. The stout man walked into the hall that was flourishing a gold-headed cane.
10. Wanted—A man to care for horses that can speak French.

150. Ambiguity in the Use of Pronouns

You have already learned that unless modifiers are so placed that it is clear what they are intended to modify, the wrong meaning is likely to be conveyed. Similarly, in using pronouns, you should make it clear what the antecedent

of each pronoun is. Otherwise ambiguity, or lack of clearness, is likely to result, as in the sentence "Calling the dog, my brother put his collar on, and started for a walk." Such a sentence may be corrected by repeating the antecedent, or by using a synonym of the antecedent; as, "Calling Rover, my brother put the dog's collar on and started out for a walk."

Frequently ambiguity in the use of pronouns may be avoided by recasting the sentence. The sentence "Mary gave Ruth her fan" is ambiguous. Why? But if it is recast to read: (1) "Mary gave her fan to Ruth, or (2) "Mary picked Ruth's fan up and gave it to her," it is clear, in the first sentence, that the fan was Mary's, and, in the second sentence, that the fan was Ruth's.

Sometimes, too, ambiguous reference may be avoided by stating a sentence in the form of a direct quotation. The sentence "The farmer went to his neighbor and told him that his cattle were in his field" is ambiguous. Why? If put into the form of a direct quotation it becomes "The farmer went to his neighbor and said, 'Your cattle are in my field.'" The meaning is now clear.

Exercise. Tell why the sentences below are ambiguous. Then rewrite each one in such a way that its meaning is clear. In some cases you may need to use two sentences in order to state clearly the meaning now expressed in one. If you find that some of the sentences may be written correctly in two ways, write both of the correct forms.

1. The maid left some medicine, but Janet secretly hid it.
When she looked for it she could not find it.
2. The man told his friend that his dog would have to be muzzled.

3. My father found that the horse had become entangled in a rope and that his leg was seriously injured. When he had extricated him, he was so tired that he could not stand.
4. Mary met Jane at the fair and invited her to supper. When she left the fair ground, she took candy and popcorn with her to treat her friend.
5. Margaret lost the pen that her sister had given her. She was very much provoked.
6. Madge put the box into her brother's bag. When she went for it, it was gone.
7. The clerk told his employer that whatever he did, he could not please him.
8. Elizabeth told her that she would keep house for her during her vacation.
9. The servant told her mistress that she would pay her debt.

151. Indefinite Pronouns

What five kinds of pronouns have you already studied? Give examples of each kind. In this lesson you will study the indefinite pronouns. The most common indefinite pronouns are:

one	either	anyone	both
each	none	nobody	some
another	neither	everyone	many
everybody	any	all	few

The indefinite pronouns point out less clearly than do the demonstrative pronouns *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*. For example, in referring to a pile of books on a table one might say, "Some are mine," or, "These are mine." In the first sentence *some* refers to several of perhaps a dozen or

more books, whereas *these* in the second sentence refers definitely to certain books. Occasionally some of these words are used as adjectives. In the sentence "Some fishermen have large nets," *some* is an adjective. In the sentence, "Some of the fishermen have large nets," *some* is a plural indefinite pronoun, subject of *have*.

When an indefinite pronoun, combined with *else*, is used to express possession, *else* takes the possessive form; as, *anybody else's*, *anyone else's*, etc. Write the possessive form of *everybody else*, *no one else*, *everyone else*.

The chief reason for studying indefinite pronouns is the fact that some of the singular forms are sometimes incorrectly used as plural forms. Those singular forms that give the greatest difficulty are *neither*, *either*, and *each*. For instance, some persons say, "Neither of the books *are* mine." They should say, "Neither of the books *is* mine," because *neither* is always singular, and requires a singular verb. Why is the singular verb correct in each of these sentences?

Has each of you a book?

Has either of you a pencil?

Remember that *neither*, *either*, and *each* are always singular. They mean *neither one*, *either one*, and *each one*. Since *neither*, *either*, and *each* are always singular, they should always be used with singular verbs.

Everybody and *everyone* are also singular, and should be used with singular verbs. *None* may be used with either a singular or a plural verb, according to whether it is singular or plural in meaning. *Any* is plural.

Exercises. A. Read the following sentences, choosing the right word. In each case give the reason for your choice.

1. Neither of these hats (is, are) mine.
2. (Has, Have) either of you a sled?
3. Each of the Boy Scouts (has, have) his own camping outfit.
4. None of those hats (is, are) mine.
5. Some of your tools (is, are) in the basement.
6. One of these boys (is, are) Mr. Brown's son.
7. Neither of the schools (is, are) modern.
8. Are there any strawberries in your pail? There (is, are) none in mine.
9. We are studying pronouns. (Is, Are) there any in this sentence?
10. Both of the men (play, plays) tennis well.
11. Each of the men (play, plays) well.
12. Everybody (is, are) ready to start.
13. Everyone (has, have) his own work to do.
14. (Is, Are) either of these books yours?
15. Neither of them (is, are) mine.

B. Write sentences illustrating the correct use of each of the indefinite pronouns.

152. Vividness by the Use of Comparisons

Sometimes, in order to make a picture clear to us, a writer compares something which is being explained or described to something which is known to the reader. Read the two lines below, omitting the italicized words. Now read them including these words.

A whooping billow swept the crew
Like icicles from her deck.

When you read these two lines with the italicized words, you get a much more vivid picture of the ease and suddenness

with which the crew were swept from the deck, than you do when these two words are omitted. If you have ever knocked icicles off the edge of a roof or a railing, you know how brittle they are, and how quickly a whole row may be snapped off. The poet assumes that his readers are familiar with icicles, and by using this comparison gives a clear picture, in two words, of the way in which the crew were swept away. Notice that the comparison is introduced by the word *like*.

Turn again to Lesson 72 and notice the comparisons used in the last part of the selection from Victor Hugo. The cannon is compared to an elephant in weight, to a mouse in agility, and to an ox in obstinacy. What other comparisons do you find?

Exercise. The comparisons in the following are all introduced by *like*, or *as—as*. Point out each comparison and tell what thought it explains or makes more vivid.

1. But the cruel rocks they gored her side
Like the horns of an angry bull.
2. *Like a vessel of glass* she stove and sank,—
Ho! Ho! the breakers roared.
3. See the noble fellow's face
As the good ship with a bound
Clears the entry *like a hound.*
4. His mustaches curled twice round, *like a corkscrew*, on
each side of his mouth.
5. The long feather of his cap hung down between his legs
like a beaten puppy's tail.
6. The gold was all melted and its surface was *as smooth*
and polished *as a river.*
7. The waves were black *like thunder-clouds*, but their foam
was *like fire.*

8. He was generally seen trotting *like a colt* at his mother's heels.

153. Use of Vivid Words

In this lesson parts of two poems are given. Read these selections and point out the descriptive details. Tell which words suggest color; which, sound; which, motion; and which, feeling or mood.

In the first selection what comparisons do you find? If you have a copy of Shelley's poems read the rest of this poem to see what other comparisons Shelley uses in describing the skylark. If possible, read the rest of Poe's poem, "The Bells," noticing especially the words denoting sounds. What mood does each stanza suggest?

I.

Higher still and higher
 From the earth thou springest
 Like a cloud of fire;
 The blue deep thou wingest,
 And singing still dost soar, and soaring ever singest.

In the golden lightning
 Of the sunken sun,
 O'er which clouds are bright'ning,
 Thou dost float and run;
 Like an unbodied joy whose race is just begun.

The pale purple even
 Melts around thy flight;
 Like a star of heaven,
 In the broad daylight
 Thou art unseen, but yet I hear thy shrill delight,

Keen as are the arrows
 Of that silver sphere,
 Whose intense lamp narrows
 In the white dawn clear
 Until we hardly see—we feel that it is there.
 From "To a Skylark," by PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY

2.

Hear the loud alarm bells—
 Brazen bells!
 What a tale of terror now their turbulency tells!
 In the startled ear of night
 How they scream out their affright!
 Too much horrified to speak,
 They can only shriek, shriek,
 Out of tune,
 In a clamorous appealing to the mercy of the fire,
 In a mad expostulation with the deaf and frantic fire
 Leaping higher, higher, higher,
 With a desperate desire,
 And a resolute endeavour
 Now—now to sit or never,
 By the side of the pale-faced moon.
 Oh, the bells, bells, bells!
 What a tale their terror tells
 Of Despair!
 How they clang, and clash, and roar
 What a horror they outpour
 On the bosom of the palpitating air!
 Yet the ear it fully knows,
 By the twanging,
 And the clanging,
 How the danger ebbs and flows;
 Yet the ear distinctly tells,

In the jangling,
 And the wrangling,
 How the danger sinks and swells,
 By the sinking or the swelling in the anger of the bells—
 Of the bells—
 Of the bells, bells, bells, bells,
 Bells, bells, bells—
 In the clamour and the clanging of the bells!

From "The Bells," by EDGAR ALLAN POE

Exercises. *A.* Write a paragraph describing one of the following. Use words which suggest color, sound, and motion.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Mist rising over the meadows | 6. A busy street |
| 2. A forest fire | 7. An automobile race |
| 3. Moonlight on the water | 8. A parade |
| 4. A pasture on a sunny day | 9. A winter morning |
| 5. A lake, or the sea, in a storm | 10. A concert |

B. Prepare a short composition on one of the following, or upon a subject of your own choice. What feeling or mood do you wish your composition to express? Choose descriptive details which will suggest the mood or feeling which you have in mind.

1. Closing Time at a Factory
2. My Trip into a Coal Mine
3. A Candy Store, at Christmas Time
4. The Biggest Football Game of the Year
5. The Last Day of School in the Seventh Grade

154. Short Talks on Vocations

Have you ever thought about what you would like to do when you have finished school? If you are a boy, you may

have thought you would like to be a doctor or a lawyer; or perhaps you would like to be a merchant, an engineer, or an architect. If you are a girl, you may have thought you would like to be a teacher or a librarian, an artist, or a landscape gardener. If you have already chosen your vocation, prepare a written report upon it.

If you have not already chosen your vocation select, as the subject of a report, some vocation which interests you enough so that you would like to find out more about it. If possible, after you have made your choice, interview two or three people who are engaged in this vocation. Find out all you can about its advantages and its disadvantages—the duties involved, the opportunities for promotion, the salary, and the qualifications which any one entering the vocation should possess. If you think you would like to go into business, interview two or three employers to find out what qualifications they look for in choosing people to work for them. Find out all you can about the business—the kinds of positions it offers, the duties and salary connected with each, and the opportunities for advancement—and prepare a written report based upon your investigation. Make the report accurate and complete.

After you have written your report, give a talk to the class upon the vocation which you have investigated.

155. Analysis of Sentences

Exercises. 4. Analyze the following sentences, according to the model given in Lesson 125:

1. The city of Albany, which is the capital of New York state, is situated on the Hudson River.
2. This crate of cherries came from an old friend who has a farm in western Michigan.

3. Of the two, this is the smaller tree.
4. The boat came slowly up the river.
5. We shall read a number of Shakespeare's plays before the end of the spring term.
6. They told us that you had come home.
7. Whether you go home or stay with us does not make any difference to Gladys and me.
8. Two robins have built their nest in our large maple tree for a number of years.
9. Many wild animals live in the tropical forests along the banks of the Amazon River.
10. Did you know who called to you yesterday?
11. The air is better on the porch than it is in the house.
12. Norton ran more swiftly than we had anticipated.
13. The boys often joke with Mr. Clark, the blacksmith, about his great strength.
14. A complex sentence contains one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.
15. That he would win was doubtful.
16. We had hoped that he would win his first important race.
17. It was a game that he could not win.
18. When the signal was given, the boys started off like a flash.
19. A wise man thinks before he speaks.
20. On one side of the path was a beautiful border of old-fashioned flowers, while on the other side there were beds of gaudy poppies.

B. Parse all the nouns and personal pronouns in these sentences. Classify each verb as transitive or intransitive and tell its tense, person, number, and the reason for its person and number. Give the part of speech of each of the other words.

156. Study of Similar Words

In this lesson you are going to have another illustration of how a knowledge of grammar enables you to use a number of words which a great many people who do not have this knowledge use and spell incorrectly. Below are given groups of words, or words and contractions, which are similar in sound, but which differ in meaning and spelling. If you are to be accurate in your use of these words, you will need to know what part of speech each is, and how each is spelled. Then, in order to know which of these words to use in a given sentence, you will need to know what part of speech is required. For instance, in the sentence "We gave it (to, too, two) them," the preposition *to* is required.

Show that each of the italicized words and contractions in the following sentences is used correctly. In giving your explanation, tell what part of speech each italicized word is, and into what two parts of speech each contraction may be separated. Review Lesson 71 for an explanation of the use of *there* as an introductory word.

1. I shall give it *to* Fannie.
He gave me *too* much.
Would you like to have these *two* books?
2. This wagon is *for* my brother.
There are *four* reasons.
3. The hunters went *forth* into the forest.
Turn to the *fourth* page of your book.
4. This is *your* music.
You're very kind to me.
5. *Whose* apple is this?
Who's there?

6. The baby hurt *its* finger.
It's a beautiful bird.
7. Animals protect *their* young.
Be *there* on time.
There is snow on the ground.

Exercise. Write the following sentences, choosing the correct word or contraction. In each case, give the grammatical reason for your choice.

1. I shall go (to, too, two) Paris (to, too, two).
2. I am (to, too, two) busy to go (to, too, two) town now.
3. These shoes are (to, too, two) sizes (to, too, two) large.
4. The baby had (to, too, two) rattles.
5. My Uncle Edward went (to, too, two) Europe (to, too, two) years ago.
6. (Whose, Who's) the governor of our state?
7. (Its, It's) about time for vacation.
8. (Whose, Who's) the author of this book?
9. (Your, You're) telling (your, you're) story (to, too, two) a friendly audience.
10. Do you think (your, you're) going to enter high school next year?
11. We shall not postpone the party although (it's, its) raining.
12. (Whose, Who's) story do you want to hear next?
13. I shall buy (for, four) handkerchiefs (for, four) Laura (for, four) Christmas.
14. On the (forth, fourth) of August we went (to, too, two) the circus and saw a tiger spring (forth, fourth) from (its, it's) cage.
15. Parents should be kind (to, too, two) (their, there) children.
16. We raise sheep for (their, there) wool.

17. James promised to be (their, there) on time.
18. (Their, There) were thousands of people at Convention Hall.

157. Redundance

In each of the following sentences there is one word which adds nothing to the meaning of the sentence, and is therefore unnecessary.

1. My uncle he goes to Europe every year.
2. Where is my book at?
3. Keep off of the grass.
4. I have got your book.

As you learned in Lesson 85, such words as *he*, *at*, *of*, and *got*, in these sentences are said to be *redundant*. How should these sentences read?

Exercises. A. Write the following sentences correctly and give your reasons for changing them:

1. Louis he was hurt.
2. I ain't got none.
3. I've got a dozen marbles.
4. This here man stole a watch.
5. He went and hit me.
6. She's got my pencil.
7. The rain is running off of the roof.
8. Add up those columns.
9. He went for to get the paper.
10. I wonder where he's at?
11. Them there flowers are dying.
12. King Philip he disliked the English.
13. Harry and I we was crowded into the last seat.
14. We did not have this here kind.
15. This here pencil is smaller than that there.

16. It has got good agricultural land around it.
17. I have got to go home at 3 o'clock.
18. That is a man of whom I've heard much of.
19. Our schoolgrounds are made out of brick.
20. We went for to get Mary but she had gone.
21. He works harder than you think for.
22. I don't remember of seeing it anywhere.
23. Add together all the numbers.
24. After we have finished up this exercise, what do you want us to do next?
25. We burned up all the papers.

B. When are words said to be redundant? In the sentence "He is a royal messenger sent by the King," the last four words are redundant because *royal messenger* conveys the same meaning as *sent by the King*. Much more forceful and simple is the sentence "He is a royal messenger;" or, "He is a messenger sent by the King."

Improve the following sentences by omitting or changing words which you think should be omitted or changed. In each case, give your reason.

1. The universal opinion of all the people is, that the prisoner who is in the prison is innocent.
2. I never was so astonished before in my life.
3. She skates awkwardly, for she is only a new beginner.
4. He has arrived at the final completion of his work.
5. The house was closely crowded with a great number of people.
6. He had the entire monopoly of the whole salt trade.
7. Can you remember back to that time?
8. The army retreated back to the rear line.
9. Charles V and Francis I were both mutually exhausted.
10. The annual anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims, celebrated yearly, took place yesterday.

11. The children need constant care all the time.
12. An equestrian statue of Lafayette on a horse was unveiled.
13. She was necessarily obliged to tell it.
14. I prophesy ahead that it will rain.
15. I shall return back home tomorrow.
16. She was a poor widow woman with two children.
17. We shall refer back to page 20.
18. Collect together enough fire wood.
19. Mary she broke the cup.
20. We anticipate that there will be trouble ahead.
21. The party will be held on Tuesday evening at 8 P.M.
22. Please repeat the directions again.
23. I should like to write the autobiography of my life.
24. The example is perfectly correct.

158. Including Necessary Words

Sometimes people make the mistake of omitting words which are necessary to the meaning of the sentence, and which should therefore be included. The sentence "*The secretary and treasurer* came to the meeting," means that the man who was both secretary and treasurer came to the meeting. But if the offices of secretary and treasurer were held by two persons, the sentence should read "*The secretary and the treasurer* came to the meeting." You must be careful about the use of *a*, *an*, and *the* in such sentences, if precise meanings are to be attached to your language. As a rule, the article should be repeated before each noun in a series unless all the nouns denote the same thing.

After the conjunctions *as* and *than* you will need to be careful to include necessary words. For instance, the sentence "He likes me better than you" may mean "He

likes me better than *he likes you,*" or "He likes me better than *you like me.*" Such a sentence must be completely expressed if it is to have a precise meaning.

In some sentences, it is necessary to include the words *those of* and *that of* in order to make the meaning clear. When we say, "This car runs at a speed equal to any other car on the market," we mean, "This car runs at a speed equal to *that of* any other car on the market." The *speed* is not equal to *any other car*, but equal to *that* (the speed) *of any other car*. In such sentences, do not omit *that of*.

Exercise. Supply missing words in the following sentences, and make any other changes that are necessary for clearness. Wherever there are two possible meanings, write a sentence to express each.

1. Our wedding-cakes are decorated in a style equal to any baker in the city.
2. I have always and still do believe that Lincoln was the greatest of Americans.
3. I have no more control over him than others.
4. I am far from a very clever boy.
5. There is a great difference between the dog and cat.
6. I enjoyed it more than you.
7. I heard him better than you.
8. He does his work with an accuracy greater than any other man I know.
9. He did what many others have and are doing.
10. I asked her the name of the puppy and kitten.

159. Parenthetical Expressions

Read the following sentences, first with the italicized words, and then without them. Is the meaning of the sentence clear without the italicized words?

1. This is, *indeed*, a memorable occasion.
2. His time with us, *I understand*, is limited.
3. We must, *by all means*, strive to make his visit a pleasant one.

You see that these groups of words are not really essential to the meaning of the sentence. They are merely thrown in to explain or emphasize, and they are called **parenthetical expressions**. What punctuation mark precedes and follows each of these parenthetical expressions?

Usually set off parenthetical expressions by commas.

Exercises. A. Rewrite the following sentences and punctuate them properly. Repeat the rule as you insert the punctuation marks.

1. New York the largest city in the United States is also the wealthiest.
2. I had as a matter of fact changed my mind before you spoke.
3. It's a cold morning to be sure sir to sit outside on the sand.
4. "That won't do with me my man" interrupted the captain.
5. The house in the meantime became so hot that we decided to go for a sail.
6. We knew of course that it was too late to go farther.
7. I had a better opportunity as I supposed to see them from the hilltop.
8. It was not high enough however.
9. It is so far as I know the first occasion on which the Governor of Ohio has visited this community.
10. There were as I observed seven men on the raft.

B. Use the following expressions parenthetically in sentences of your own.

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. he observed | 6. he tells me |
| 2. I understand | 7. as I thought |
| 3. you understand | 8. on the whole |
| 4. to be sure | 9. to say the least |
| 5. as you remember | 10. to tell the truth |

160. Short Talks on Friendship

In order to have friends you must possess the qualities of a friend yourself. Interview several persons considerably older than yourself to find out what, in their opinion, the qualities of a true friend are. Then make a list of the qualities suggested by the persons whom you have interviewed. In class, reports upon the interviews will be made and the various qualities mentioned will be discussed. The class will then make a composite list of the qualities which, in its opinion, a true friend should possess. The qualities mentioned in this list will be assigned as subjects for short talks, as in the lesson on vocations.

Words Often Mispronounced. Below is a list of words which are often mispronounced. What is the correct pronunciation of each of these words? Drill upon any that you mispronounce until you can pronounce them correctly.

apparatus	creek	hearth	perhaps
apricot	daub	hoof	pretty
biography	extraordinary	Italian	roof
bouquet	foot	literature	status
cantaloupe	genuine	orchestra	rinse

161. A Short Story

Review Lessons 34 to 39 inclusive on the short story, and write a short story upon one of the following subjects,

or upon a subject of your own choice. Remember to make the incidents of your story lead up to a surprise or climax.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. A Night on the Ocean | 6. My First Fish |
| 2. A Queer Ride | 7. My Mistake |
| 3. Lost in a Department Store | 8. A Wish That Came True |
| 4. Nearly on the Rocks | 9. Winning the Cup |
| 5. A Hornet's Nest | 10. The Puncture |

162. Memory Exercise

Some eighth grade classes have memorized the two following paragraphs taken from Mr. Hoover's speech accepting the nomination for President. Would you not like to learn them, also? No finer literature can be found.

You convey too great a compliment when you say that I have earned the right to the Presidential nomination. No man can establish such an obligation upon any part of the American people. My country owes me no debt. It gave me, as it gives every boy and girl, a chance. It gave me schooling, independence of action, opportunity for service and honor. In no other land could a boy from a country village without inheritance or influential friends look forward with unbounded hope.

My whole life has taught me what America means. I am indebted to my country beyond any human power to repay. It conferred upon me the mission to administer America's response to the appeal of afflicted nations during the war. It has called me into two cabinets of two Presidents. By these experiences I have observed the burdens and responsibilities of the greatest office in the world. That office touches the happiness of every home. It deals with the peace of nations. No man could think of it except in terms of solemn consecration.

What does President Hoover mean when he says that he has not *earned* the right to become president? Why does

America owe no one a debt? In what ways has America given every boy and girl a chance?

What does America mean to President Hoover? How does he look upon the office of president of the United States?

Read the topic sentence of each paragraph quoted above.

163. Correct Use of Words

In this exercise a number of commonly used incorrect expressions are given. Notice the correct and the incorrect forms. With the help of your dictionary, tell why the expressions in the left-hand list are incorrect. Then write sentences in which the following are correctly used: *over*, *some*, *should*, *expect*, *guess*, *kind of*, *sort of*, *on*.

<i>Incorrect</i>	<i>Correct</i>
Quit joking!	Stop joking!
She is <i>some</i> better today.	She is <i>somewhat</i> better today.
I <i>want you should</i> go.	I <i>want you to</i> go.
I received toys, games, <i>and etc.</i>	I received toys, games, <i>etc.</i>
She is <i>light-complected</i> .	She is <i>light-complexioned</i> .
I <i>expect</i> it's time for us to go.	I <i>suppose</i> it's time for us to go.
I <i>guess</i> I know that.	I <i>think</i> I know that.
It's <i>in back of</i> the chair.	It's <i>behind</i> the chair.
I <i>kind of</i> felt my way along. }	I felt my way along <i>after a fashion</i> .
I <i>sort of</i> felt my way along. }	
I will <i>wait on</i> you, if you will hurry.	I will <i>wait for</i> you if you will hurry.
I <i>want in</i> .	I <i>want to (go, get) in</i> .
I <i>want off</i> .	I <i>want to (go, get) off</i> .
I <i>want out</i> .	I <i>want to (go, get) out</i> .
I <i>want on</i> .	I <i>want to (go, get) on</i> .
I <i>suspicioned</i> that.	I <i>suspected</i> that.

164. Explanations

Review Lesson 77. Then prepare a talk upon one of the following subjects, or upon one of your own choice. In order to give a clear explanation, you must select a subject which you thoroughly understand. If you decide to give an explanation of how to do or make something, outline the steps of the process before attempting to give your talk; if you decide to explain why something is true, outline the reasons which you are going to give.

1. Why We Should Kill Flies
2. How to Set Telephone Poles
3. How to Drive an Automobile
4. How a Newspaper is Printed
5. How a Binder Works
6. How to Set up a Tent
7. How to Dive While Swimming
8. How to Dive from a Raft
9. How to Put a Film into a Camera
10. How to Dive from a Springboard
11. How to Connect a Battery or Dry Cells in an Electric Circuit with a Bell
12. How to Play Hockey
13. How to Set a Mouse Trap

165. Dramatization—"Robin Hood and His Merry Men"

When a story is written in a form to be acted, it is called a play. Like a short story, a play must have a plot and a climax. The events of the plot lead up to the climax. The result of the climax forms the conclusion. The story is usually told in one or in three acts, each of which may have several scenes. As the whole story must be told by means

of acting and dialogue, there is no room for unimportant details.

In this lesson is a one-act play entitled "Robin Hood and His Merry Men." Read it carefully. What is the climax, or surprise, of this play? How many characters are there? What are the most striking characteristics of each? Choose some one to take each part, and then present the play. Notice that the list of characters in a play is called the "Cast of Characters."

ROBIN HOOD AND HIS MERRY MEN

CAST OF CHARACTERS

ROBIN HOOD, the brave leader of the merry men of the Greenwood

ALLAN-A-DALE, the minstrel of the Greenwood

DAVID O'DONCASTER, the youngest member of the Greenwood

LITTLE JOHN, Robin Hood's chief man

TOM POTTS, THE TINKER, a slovenly, boastful fellow

THE TANNER OF BLYTH, a burly fellow with an uncivil tongue

SIR RICHARD OF LEA, the Knight

THE SHERIFF, an example of bad citizenship

AN UNKNOWN FRIAR, who turns out to be King Richard, the Lion-Hearted

MAID MARIAN, the wife of Robin Hood

ALICE-A-DALE, the wife of Allan-a-Dale

Four men in Lincoln green, and as many others as desired, all of whom are Robin Hood's good and faithful men.

SCENE IN FOREST: *Four men in Lincoln green busily engaged in stringing their long bows. Maid Marian and Alice-a-Dale seated in a woody bower sewing.*

FIRST-MAN-IN-LINCOLN-GREEN: Robin Hood likes bows of good yew wood.

SECOND-MAN-IN-LINCOLN-GREEN: Ay! and naught but the old broad cloth-yard arrows will do him.

THIRD-MAN-IN-LINCOLN-GREEN: Other men use the same bows and draw the same kind of arrows, yet there be none that shoot like Master Robin.

FOURTH-MAN-IN-LINCOLN-GREEN: Ay, there'll be one that can shoot as well as Master Robin—good King Richard. God bless him! But he's miles away in the Holy Land and there are some that say that he'll ne'er return to merry England!

ALLAN-A-DALE: (*Enter singing*)

“But Robin Hood so gentle was
And bore so brave a mind
If any in distress did pass,
To them he was most kind,
That he would give and lend to them
To help them in their need;
This made the poor all pray for him
And wish he might well speed.”¹

(*Takes hat off and makes sweeping courtesy. Ladies clap hands softly.*)

(*Enter David O'Doncaster all out of breath.*)

ALLAN-A-DALE: Hold, David, my lad! Are there a pack of wolves at your heels that you come with your tongue a-dangling like a dog in the chase?

DAVID: It's good news that brings me! The Master took part in the shooting match at Nottingham, today,—and—won the prize!

ALLAN-A-DALE: And the Prize?

DAVID: Verily, it is the sweetest, brightest, and yellowest arrow ever my eyes have seen!—a golden shaft with red gold feathers!

MEN-IN-LINCOLN-GREEN: (*Throw hats in the air and shout*)

¹ Song from “Tales and Plays of Robin Hood” by Eleanor L. Skinner.

Robin Hood! Robin Hood! Robin Hood! (*Maid Marian embraces Alice-a-Dale.*)

(*Enter Robin Hood with his great bow and quiver of arrows, prominent among which is the golden prize.*)

MAID MARIAN: 'Tis the Master! (*Rushes forth to welcome him.*) The news of your skill at the shooting match has just reached us!

ROBIN HOOD: Oh, that was a little thing.

DAVID: A little thing! He calls it a little thing to outshoot the best archers in all England. (*Still breathless with excitement.*) You should have seen the way he shot. (*Goes through the actions in pantomime as he talks. Group gathers about him with the exception of Maid Marian and Robin Hood, who seat themselves in the bower.*) Two shafts struck the white, Bing! Bing! The third—Ay, that was the sweetest arrow that ever went sailing through space—it smote the very clout!

MEN-IN-LINCOLN-GREEN: (*Slap their knees*) Hear! Hear! Hear!

DAVID: There's nothing in all the world that has the speed of Master's arrows.

ROBIN HOOD: Nay, David, in that I hold you mistaken. Your tongue can outfly any arrow of mine.

(*Enter Little John accompanied by Tom Potts, the Banbury Tinker, a ragged, dirty looking fellow; the Tanner of Blyth; Sir Richard of Lea; the Sheriff of Nottingham, and an unknown Friar; a number of good yeomen in Lincoln green.*)

ROBIN HOOD: Welcome to Sherwood Forest!

LITTLE JOHN: (*Stands before Robin Hood*) All these be men who for one reason or another wish to see you, Master.

ROBIN HOOD: (*Bows head in acknowledgment of Little John's speech*) Who would speak first?

TOM POTTS: (*Comes forward, pulls forelock and ducks in an awkward attempt at bowing.*) With your permission I'll be first to open my mouth. Tom Potts is my name. Tinker by profession;

home, Banbury Town. (*Swaggering*) No man in all the country can swing a cudgel like Tom Potts. Ten at one blow, that's me. I'd like to see the man that I'm afraid of. They say your men are the strongest and best in these parts. Well, if that be true, they're meet company for Tom Potts.

ROBIN HOOD: Very well, my good man. But it is ever better to let some one else set music to your virtues than to try to write a tune for them yourself. Has anyone a good reason why the Tinker of Banbury should not don Lincoln green?

DAVID: (*Who has been closely examining Tom Potts*) Begging your pardon, Master, I doubt if any of us can judge whether the Tinker is a likely candidate or no with all that dirt plastered on him!

ROBIN HOOD: One of the chief laws of the Greenwood is cleanliness, friend Tinker.

LITTLE JOHN: The Tinker also is a bit-er-er-rough in his speech, Master.

ROBIN HOOD: (*To Tinker*) Cleanliness of body, speech and thought, all this must you live up to before we can admit you to the forest band.

TINKER: 'Tis a grievously hard ruling, Master Robin. But nothing can knock Tom Potts out. He would belong to your company and so he will! Ten at one blow, that's Tom Potts. (*Struts boastfully off.*)

DAVID: He'd best change his tune to ten baths at once, or better yet, a bath a day for ten days. Perhaps by then, he'll have the habit.

LITTLE JOHN: The Tanner of Blyth, Master. (*The Tanner advances. Refuses to bow to Robin Hood.*)

THE TANNER: (*Rudely*) Well, here I be. I'm a strong man. If you want me to belong to your men, you can take me. If you don't want me there's others that do!

ROBIN HOOD: Can anyone put forth a good reason why the Tanner should not belong to the Greenwood band?

ALLAN-A-DALE: More reasons than one, Robin Hood. Several times have I met this man on the open road and at each meeting I have bespoke him courteously as behooves two travelers on the same highway and he has returned my greeting with rude speech.

ROBIN HOOD: (*To the Tanner*) The life of the Greenwood demands politeness and good fellowship. Till you can practise these virtues with good grace, we wish none of you. (*The Tanner hastily disappears in forest.*)

RICHARD OF LEA: (*Advances and bows before Robin Hood.*) My tale will not keep you long. My name is Richard of Lea. I come to you because men say that you are always ready to help those in distress and ever loyal to our good country.

ROBIN HOOD: I have but kept the promise I made King Richard to fend for the weak and abide by the law of the realm. No man could do less.

RICHARD OF LEA: So think I! But there be few these days—who share the same opinion. With King Richard in the Holy Land each man seems to have mislaid his oath of allegiance. Strife has broken out everywhere. Homes are torn down and fair and fertile fields laid waste. For the older folk, I make no plea, but for the children I do grieve sorely.

MAID MARIAN: Lack the children necessities?

THE KNIGHT: Ay, food and clothing have they none.

ROBIN HOOD: Little John, go at once to the treasure chest and count out money enough to bring relief to these little ones of the good knight's tale.

ALLAN-A-DALE: So noble a knight shall not ride away in rags. (*Slips over knight's shoulders his own cape of Lincoln green.*) Neither shall he go without the royal insignia that befits his service and goodness of heart. (*Pins on the knight a red cross. Little John enters with a bag of clinking gold which he hands to knight.*)

THE KNIGHT: Gramercy, my kind friends! Gramercy! My

heart overflows with gratitude though my tongue be not over glib with words!

ROBIN HOOD: Say no more, good knight. 'Tis ever our pleasure to help those in need. The cause of children is particularly near and dear to each one of us. Fare-you-well and may happiness and success attend your mission.

THE KNIGHT: I shall come anon to bring you the thanks of those your kindness has saved. (*Bows low and leaves.*)

THE SHERIFF: (*During all this time has been fuming and fretting for his turn to speak. He now advances toward Robin Hood.*) For one in my position it is ill befitting, methinks, to be kept waiting so long.

ROBIN HOOD: All men are judged equal in the Greenwood, Sheriff, if they be not in Nottingham! Moreover you are no rightful citizen! You have forfeited the trust King Richard placed in you. You have robbed the poor, and abused the widows and orphans. Little do you deserve to live in so fair a land.

THE SHERIFF: (*Angrily*) What right have you to censure me, Robin Hood?

ROBIN HOOD: The right of every man who loves his country and wishes to see her good laws enforced.

THE SHERIFF: Till King Richard comes, I can take care of the laws without advice from you.

UNKNOWN FRIAR: (*Steps forward*) Till King Richard comes, say you? (*Throws back cowl and stands revealed in a suit of armor.*) King Richard has come!

ALL: (*Fall on knees*) The King!

THE SHERIFF: (*Throws himself at feet of King humbly.*) Thy forgiveness, my King!

THE KING: (*Sternly*) You'll not have my forgiveness till I see you have merited it. You have brought discredit on England by your unworthy acts. Get out of my sight before wrath overcomes me. (*Sheriff hastily leaves scene.*)

THE KING: (*To Robin Hood and men.*) Rise, my good men! Brave and loyal are all of you and stout of heart. In all my kingdom there be few as faithful. (*Sighs sadly.*) When I left all was well, but alas, things have changed color since that day. Rights have grown into wrongs, gladness has changed to sadness. A gigantic task awaits. Would you serve me till peace and prosperity have returned to our once merry land?

ROBIN HOOD AND MEN: (*A great shout.*) Ay, and gladly!

THE KING: Your oath of allegiance, good Robin Hood, do you remember it still?

ROBIN HOOD: (*Comes forward and kneels before the King. Men kneel in background.*) I, Robin Hood, and all my men, do promise faithfully to serve our fellowmen and to revere and obey our country's laws. (*King Richard gives Robin Hood his hand in rising.*)

ALL: (*Lifting hands in salutation*) Honor to good King Richard! Honor to Robin Hood!

THE KING: Honor to all who serve their country and their fellowmen!

LOUISE FRANKLIN BACHE

When this play is presented before the class, the members of the class not taking part in the play may act as critics. The critics should be prepared to tell whether or not they think the parts are well taken, and why. Perhaps you may be able to have the play presented again, and invite your parents and friends.

Usually plays are written, in the first place, as plays. But sometimes stories or novels are dramatized, that is, rewritten as plays.

In dramatizing a long story, it is best to write it in three acts, with as many scenes in each act as are necessary. The first act should include the incidents which lead up to the climax; the second act, the incidents which form the

climax; and the third, the incidents which result from the climax. If chapters from a book are taken, the incidents from one or two chapters may be used in forming a scene for presentation in class. An entire book is usually too long to be dramatized as a class exercise.

As the story must be told entirely by conversation, care must be taken in selecting incidents which make the story clear. Make your characters talk as they would in real life. If the dramatization is not written well, it cannot be acted successfully.

In writing the play, no quotation marks are used. The dramatization is written in dialogue form. A list of the characters, the time, and the setting are given at the beginning. Stage directions, or instructions to the performers, are given in parentheses.

Suppose that you wish to dramatize the thirteenth chapter of *The Swiss Family Robinson*. The setting, the time, and the characters would be as follows.

SETTING: The family are grouped under a tree which serves as their house in the island of New Guinea.

TIME: Eighteenth century

CHARACTERS: FATHER, a Swiss pastor

MOTHER

FRITZ, the eldest son, a boy of fourteen years

FRANCIS, the youngest son, six years of age

JACK, the third son, ten years old

ERNEST, the second son, a boy twelve years old

In the early editions of the *Swiss Family Robinson*, part of the thirteenth chapter is written in dialogue, but the conversation is rather stilted and too long to be successfully acted. The dialogue should therefore be made simpler and

briefly. The conversation between the father and the boys might, for instance, begin in this way:

FATHER: What do you think, boys, of giving a name to our house and to the different parts of this country which we now know—not a name for the whole island, but for the different parts with which we are most familiar? It will be easier to talk about these places if we have names for them, and having names for them will help us to forget that we are entirely alone on this desert island.

BOYS (together) Fine! A good idea, father!

JACK: Let's invent some long, difficult names so that people who read about us will have trouble in remembering the names of our places and things. When I think how hard it was for me to remember Monomotapa, Zanguebar, and Coromandel, I'd like to get even with the people who named them.

You may now finish the dramatization of this chapter.

Below are several suggested subjects for dramatization. Decide upon a story which you would like to write as a play. What is to be the climax, or most exciting event in your play? What incidents lead up to this event? What characters appear in this play? What is each character to say and do? Where does the action of each scene take place? Having made a decision upon these points, write the play. Choose some one to take each part, and present the play.

The Courtship of Miles Standish—Longfellow

The Christmas Carol—Dickens

The Last of the Mohicans (Selected scenes)—Cooper

The Pied Piper of Hamelin—Browning

Little Women—Alcott

Timothy's Quest—Wiggin

Scenes based upon local history

166. Review—*Its and It's; Whose and Who's*

Exercise. Write the following sentences, choosing the correct form and stating your reason in this way:

I choose *It's* because it is a contraction of *It is*.

1. (*Its, It's*) too late to go now.
2. The ship has lost much of (*its, it's*) ammunition.
3. The panther can not find (*its, it's*) way out of the cave.
4. I know that (*its, it's*) she.
5. The chicken has caught (*its, it's*) leg in the wire.
6. (*Its, It's*) difficult to see the ocean on a foggy day.
7. I do not know whether (*its, it's*) possible for me to go or not.
8. (*Its, It's*) cargo has been unloaded.
9. (*Its, It's*) worth while for me to study Latin.
10. "*(Its, It's)* time to go to school," called mother.
11. I know (*whose, who's*) book this is.
12. (*Whose, Who's*) coming to supper tonight?
13. (*Whose, Who's*) the author of this book?
14. The man (*whose, who's*) dog I have has left for Europe.
15. Do you know (*whose, who's*) pocket-book I have found?
16. (*Whose, Who's*) hat is this?
17. I can not tell (*whose, who's*) in the parlor.
18. (*Whose, Who's*) the composer of this song?
19. (*Its, It's*) not known (*whose, who's*) building this house.
20. (*Its, It's*) probable that he knows (*whose, who's*) key this is.

167. Review—Agreement

Exercises. A. Change nouns, pronouns, and verbs in the following sentences to plural forms. Which sentence cannot be changed?

1. He was not there.
2. The boy is hurt.
3. He doesn't sing well.
4. The owl sees better in the dark.
5. The harvest was gathered.
6. The circus animal rises early.
7. Has the boy finished his supper?
8. Were you excited?
9. Shall I read you a story?
10. Does the American city progress rapidly?

B. Supply the proper personal pronoun or possessive adjective in each of these sentences. Show that the word supplied agrees with its antecedent.

1. Every boy in this class does — work well.
2. Some people think only of — own welfare.
3. No girl can afford to neglect — lessons.
4. All the girls had left — tennis rackets at home.
5. Each one thought that — was right.
6. Every soldier was ready to die for — country.
7. Each boy carried — own supplies.
8. Each girl hoped that — would have an opportunity to show what — could do.
9. A man's success in life depends on — own exertions.
10. Every tree is known by — fruit.
11. Let any boy guess this riddle if — can.
12. Both cold and heat have — extremes.
13. Some boy or man has lost — hat.
14. Coffee and sugar are brought from the West Indies and large quantities of — are consumed each year.
15. The pupils obey — teacher.
16. Let every pupil obey — teacher.
17. The jury was unanimous in — decision.

18. Everyone must be the judge of — own feelings.
19. John or James will favor us with — company.
20. No person should boast of — accomplishments.

168. Review—Transitive Verbs

Exercises. A. What is a transitive verb? Review Lesson 78. Find the transitive verbs in the following sentences and point out the direct object of each. Work rapidly.

1. We divided the money among five boys.
2. When did you answer my letter?
3. Benedict Arnold betrayed his country.
4. Bees had hoarded their honey till the hives overflowed.
5. I ate all the cookies that I could find.
6. The boy heard his mother, but paid no attention.
7. Warner wrote "Being a Boy."
8. When the cards came out, August had made high grades in every study.
9. We put good bait on the hook, but we didn't catch a fish.
10. Jack often wears a silk tie.
11. I know why you won't come.
12. When she traveled through Arizona, Jessie saw ten Indians.
13. No one knows what has become of them.
14. Indians make baskets and weave blankets.
15. I memorize poetry quickly, but soon forget it.
16. Dorothy invited us to the band concert.
17. The government makes the coins.
18. I have seen where mother keeps the key.
19. I read the signpost as we passed it.

B. Analyze the sentences in Exercise A.

169. Review—Intransitive Verbs

What are intransitive verbs? Intransitive verbs may be complete or linking. What is a complete verb? What is a linking verb? See Lesson 79.

Exercises. *A.* Which of the verbs in the following sentences are transitive, and which are intransitive? How do you know? Point out the object of each transitive verb. Which of the intransitive verbs are complete, and which are linking? Point out the predicate noun, pronoun, or adjective which follows each of the linking verbs.

1. Grant and Lee were generals in the Civil War.
2. Some people turn traitors to their friends.
3. John turned the top of the jar of quince and opened it for his mother.
4. The ball is rolling down the street into the gutter.
5. We are afraid that we shall lose it.
6. We picked cherries all the morning for Mrs. Jones.
7. It was he whom you saw.
8. Did you want Bessie Brown? I am she.
9. We shall be very happy when our presents have come.
10. They know whom you mean.
11. Mr. Miller had taken us girls to the lighthouse before you came.
12. It was I who knocked.
13. The squirrel scampered up the tree.
14. We played cards last evening.
15. They tasted the berries.
16. The berries tasted sweet.
17. I smelled the cookies the minute I entered the door.
18. The cookies smelled good.
19. He became morose and silent when we questioned him.
20. Smoke poured out of the windows, and we were afraid

that passers-by would think the house itself was burning.

21. We shall have finished our game by seven o'clock.
22. They did not wait for her.

B. Parse all the nouns and personal pronouns in the sentences in Exercise A. Tell the kind, tense, person, number, and the reason for the person and number, of each verb. Tell the part of speech of each of the other words, and explain how each is used.

C. Analyze the sentences in Exercise A.

170. Participles

Read the following sentences, paying especial attention to the words in italics.

1. The old man, gravely *nodding* his head, assured us that we were on the right road.
2. *Having finished* his work, the lumberman went home.
3. The basket, *filled* with the most delicious fruit, was almost too heavy for us to carry.

The word *nodding* in the first sentence is like a verb in that

- (1) it indicates an action
- (2) it has an object, *head*
- (3) it is modified by the adverb *gravely*.

But *nodding* is unlike a verb in that it makes no assertion and has no subject. Of what verb is *man* the subject? The word *nodding* does not assert anything about the noun *man*, but describes it. In this respect *nodding* is like an adjective.

In sentence 2, *having finished* has an object, *work*, yet it modifies the noun *lumberman*.

Filled, in the third sentence, contains an idea of action, but it is also like an adjective in that it modifies the noun *basket*.

Words like *nodding*, *having finished*, and *filled*, that have qualities of both adjectives and verbs, are called **participles**.

A participle is a verb form which partakes of the nature of an adjective.

Since participles are verb forms, yet are used as adjectives, they are sometimes called *verbal adjectives*.

Explain in what respects each of the participles in the following sentences is like a verb, and in what respect like an adjective:

1. The water, *splashing* merrily over the rocks, finally reached the brook.
2. The hut, *built* of rough logs, was their only shelter.
3. The farmer, *dropping* his hoe, ran to assist the frightened child.
4. *Being* honest, he was chosen treasurer.
5. *Having carried* the suitcase for a mile, he was glad to set it down.
6. The river, no longer *held* by the dike, flooded the fields.

Look again at these six sentences. Which of the participles have modifiers? Which have objects? Which one has a predicate adjective? A participle with the words that depend upon it, that is, with its modifiers, object, or predicate adjective, is called a **participial phrase**. In sentence 1, *splashing merrily over the rocks* is a participial phrase. Point out the participial phrases in the other sentences.

Present and Past Participles. Some participles denote action which is taking place at the same time that some other action takes place; as,

The man, *raising* his hand, frowned.

In this sentence the participle *raising* denotes an act which took place at the same time as the act of frowning. This participle is therefore called a **present participle**. The present participle always ends in *ing*. The present participle is used with the verb *be* in the progressive forms. Illustrate.

Other participles denote action completed in the past; as,

The potatoes, *raised* in my garden during the summer, were sold today.

The participle *raised* in this sentence refers to something which took place before the time denoted by the verb *were sold*. *Raised* is therefore a **past participle**. You learned in Lesson 133 how the past participle is usually formed. What use of the past participle have you already learned?

Copy the following sentences, drawing one line under each present participle, and two lines under each past participle. Tell from what verb each participle is derived, and how the participle is used.

1. The fugitives, fleeing in distress, straggled into the fort at sundown.
2. Burdened with their baggage, the soldiers could not march very rapidly.
3. On the box sat Bobby, waiting for his change.
4. I met a little boy sobbing pitifully.
5. The artillery men, pushing their guns as far forward as possible, fired on the enemy.
6. Comforting the frightened child, we hastened with her to safety.
7. Frightened almost to death, the child ran into the house.
8. The grain, gathered and prepared for shipping, is our wealth.

In sentence 1 of the preceding exercise, the participial phrase occurs within the sentence. How is it separated from the rest of the sentence? Where does the participial phrase in sentence 2 occur? How is it separated from the rest of the sentence? Where does the participial phrase in sentence 3 occur? How is it separated from the rest of the sentence? Notice that the participial phrase in sentence 4 is shorter than those in the other sentences, and is therefore not set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma. From the illustrations in sentences 1, 2, and 3, formulate a rule for the punctuation of long participial phrases.

Copy the following sentences and punctuate them correctly:

1. Struck dumb by the amazing sight the boys stood and stared.
2. The boy having lost all control of the boat shouted for help.
3. Having been moistened by the rain the soil was ready for cultivation.
4. Having made a counter-attack the men returned to the trenches.
5. The boy having sold his papers went home.
6. The stag stood quivering with fear facing the band of hunters.
7. Knowing the danger we did not go on to the ice.
8. The girls being afraid of ghosts left the haunted house.
9. Broken at many places by falling shells the bridge was in ruins.
10. Having tested the airplane the aviator sailed into the air.

Participles, like other modifiers, should stand near the words that they modify. What is wrong with the following

sentences? Rewrite them in such a way that it will be clear what noun or pronoun each participle modifies.

1. We found this purse climbing the mountain.
2. The umbrella stood in the corner badly torn by the wind.
3. Lost: A leather wallet by a clerk containing twenty dollars.
4. We saw miles and miles of desert riding in the train.
5. We called the police frightened by the noise.

When a participle is used to introduce a sentence it should always modify the subject of the sentence. For instance, the sentence "Coming through Colorado the scenery is beautiful" is incorrect. There is no noun or pronoun for the participle *coming* to modify except *scenery*. But, of course, the scenery was not coming through Colorado. The sentence should read: "Coming through Colorado, I saw some beautiful scenery." In this sentence the participle *coming* modifies the pronoun *I*, and the meaning that as I was coming through Colorado I saw beautiful scenery is correctly expressed.

A participle introducing a sentence should always modify the subject of the sentence.

Exercises. A. The participles in the following sentences are not properly used. Why? Rewrite the sentences in such a way that the meaning is correctly expressed. In some cases the meaning may be made clear simply by changing the position of the participial phrase. In some cases additional changes may be necessary. Be careful to punctuate the rewritten sentences correctly.

1. Gathered from all sections of the city, the orator held his audience spellbound.

2. Fainting from the hot sun, they asked him to come in and rest.
3. Staggering toward them they saw that the man was wounded.
4. Hopping on three legs they saw the dog approaching.
5. Bowed by his grief, they met him in the hall.
6. Howling all night long he felt that the dog was lonely.
7. Walking down the street, the apple trees were in bloom.
8. Interested in what they were listening to, he held them longer.
9. Leaping in glistening groups, he saw a school of fish.
10. Leaning on his cane, they drew near the old man.

B. Write ten sentences containing participial phrases. Be prepared to show that the participles are correctly used, and that the sentences are correctly punctuated.

171. Subjects for Descriptions

From time to time you will probably be asked to write brief descriptions. Below is a list of suggested subjects for descriptions, to which you may refer at any time. Although you may not wish to use these particular subjects, they will help you to think of similar subjects about which you would like to write. For instance, there may not be a park where you live, but this subject may suggest some scene with which you are familiar, such as a beautiful field, an orchard, or a pasture lot with a stream flowing through it. There may not be any sand dunes where you live, but there may be a hill from the top of which there is a beautiful view, or from which you may see a beautiful sunset. No matter where you live, there are places or scenes which may be described and your descriptions should, for the most part, be based upon your experiences or observations.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. A Beautiful Park | 11. A Queer Peddler |
| 2. The Zoo | 12. My Favorite Bird |
| 3. The Sand Dunes | 13. My Favorite Flower |
| 4. Our Library | 14. A Visitor I Welcome |
| 5. Our Schoolroom | 15. A Call from My Favorite
Hero (imaginary) |
| 6. The Prettiest Booth at the
Fair | 16. A Day in Philadelphia in
1776 (imaginary) |
| 7. The Float That Won the
Prize | 17. An Old Garret |
| 8. An Open-Air Market | 18. An Old Mill |
| 9. The Fields at Haying Time | 19. A View from the Hills |
| 10. An Old Barn | 20. The Iceman |

172. Gerunds and Infinitives

Gerunds. What form of the verb is *walking* in the first sentence below? How is it used?

1. The man, *walking* rapidly up the road, disappeared.
2. *Walking* is good exercise.

Since *walking* in the first sentence denotes an action, yet is used as an adjective, it is clearly a participle. *Walking* in the second sentence also denotes an action. It is, however, not used as an adjective. It is the subject of the verb *is*. In this sentence *walking* is, therefore, not a participle but a verb form used as a noun. Verb forms ending in *ing* that are used as nouns are called gerunds.

A gerund is a verb form ending in *ing* that partakes of the nature of a noun.

A gerund makes no assertion, but merely names an action or a state of being.

Explain how each of the gerunds in the following sentences is like a verb and at the same time like a noun.

What part of speech modifies the gerund in sentence 4?
in sentence 5?

1. *Skating* is good exercise.
2. I enjoy *skating*.
3. The art of *skating* is not always easily acquired.
4. Graceful *skating* is an art.
5. *Skating* gracefully is an art.
6. *Receiving* letters is a pleasure.

Write five sentences containing gerunds and explain how each is used.

Infinitives. There is another form of the verb besides the gerund which has the uses of a noun. Read carefully the following sentences:

1. *To skate* is good exercise.
2. *To skate* gracefully is an art.
3. *To receive* a letter is a pleasure.
4. He was given an opportunity *to speak*.
5. He ran *to ask* permission.
6. Our desire is *to speak* correctly.
7. The prisoner wanted *to be* free.
8. He asked me *to stay*.
9. I knew it *to be* him.

In sentence 1, the verb form *to skate* is the subject and is, therefore, used as a noun. In sentence 2, *to skate* is modified by an adverb and so partakes of the nature of a verb but it is also like a noun, in that it is the subject of the sentence. In 3, *to receive* takes an object; what is it? In 4, this verb form is used as an adjectival modifier; *to speak* modifies the noun *opportunity*. In 5, *to ask* is used as an adverbial modifier; *to ask* modifies the verb *ran*. In sentence 6, *to speak* is used as a predicate nominative after

the linking verb *is*. In 7, *to be* is the object of the verb *wanted*. In 8, *to stay* has a subject, *me*. In 9, *to be* has a subject, *it*, and a predicate word, *him*.

The italicized verb forms in the sentences above are called **infinitives**.

An infinitive is a verb form that partakes of the nature of a noun, of an adjective, and of an adverb.

Since gerunds and infinitives have the function of nouns in sentences, they may be called substantives. Since they are verb forms, yet are used as nouns, both gerunds and infinitives are sometimes spoken of as *verbal nouns*.

The word *to*, which in this case is not to be considered as a preposition, usually precedes the infinitive and is called the *sign of the infinitive*. The *to* is sometimes omitted, as in these sentences:

1. We shall make her *sing*.
2. I saw Rover *save* the boy.
3. Do not let him *go*.
4. There was nothing I could do but *accept*.

Do not confuse a prepositional phrase with an infinitive. *To* with a noun or pronoun is a prepositional phrase, while *to* with a verb is an infinitive.

In the sentence "He asked me to stay," you see that an infinitive may have a subject. *Me* is the subject of *to stay*. Strange to say, the subject of an infinitive is in the accusative case. When an infinitive has a subject and is followed by a predicate noun or pronoun, this predicate word is also in the accusative case. We therefore say, "I knew it to be him." When the infinitive has a predicate word, but no subject, the predicate word is in the nominative case, as in the sentence "The guest was said to be she."

Explain how each of the infinitives in the following sentences is used. If the infinitive has a subject, an object, a predicate word, or modifiers, point these out. Give the reason for the case of *us* in sentence 6, and of *her* in sentence 7.

1. We like *to play* ball.
2. *To write* letters is a pleasure.
3. Our intention is *to go* to the mountains.
4. *To speak* plainly, we are not interested in your suggestion.
5. We expected *to be pleased* with the performance.
6. They invited us *to go*.
7. We knew it *to be* her.
8. We were given books *to read*.
9. He went *to find* his book.

Write five sentences containing infinitives, and explain in each case how the infinitive is used.

Exercise. Analyze the following sentences and point out the gerunds and the infinitives, explaining how each is used in this way:

To know is an infinitive, having the object *man*. The infinitive phrase *to know the man* is the subject of the sentence.

1. To know the man is to admire him.
2. To think accurately is necessary in the study of mathematics.
3. Americans like to play tennis.
4. Our guests spoke about taking me with them to the park.
5. Seeing is believing.
6. To see is to believe.
7. I like to swim.
8. The boys discussed swimming to the opposite shore.
9. Being prompt is a virtue.
10. I rose to shut the door.
11. Playing basket ball is my favorite recreation.

12. Neat writing is an asset in business.
13. He supposed it to be her.
14. The newcomer was known to be she.
15. I heard him enter the house.
16. He had no desire to answer.
17. Working in the field is good exercise.
18. It was interesting to send the message by radio.
19. He hopes to be at home in a week.
20. He dared not disobey.

173. Possessive Adjective with Gerund

Notice carefully these two sentences:

1. I saw *him approaching* the house.
2. We mentioned *his staying* at the house.

In the first sentence, *him* is the object of the verb *saw*, and it is modified by the participle *approaching*. This sentence means that I saw *him* (in distinction from anyone else) approaching the house. In this sentence the emphasis is upon the *person* (him), rather than upon the act of approaching.

In the second sentence the gerund *staying* is the object of the verb *mentioned*, and it is modified by the possessive adjective *his*. This sentence means that we were talking about *his staying*, not about *him*. The emphasis in this sentence is upon the *act of staying* rather than upon the person.

The reason that it is important for you to notice the difference in the meaning of these sentences is that people who do not understand grammar sometimes use the accusative case of the pronoun with the gerund; as, "We mentioned *him staying* at the house." But this sentence

throws the emphasis upon the person, and means that we were talking about *him* while he was staying at the house. Since this is not the meaning intended, the sentence is incorrect. It should read, "We mentioned *his staying* at the house."

Use the possessive adjective with the gerund.

When a noun is used with a gerund, it should be in the genitive case, as:

We did not like *Herbert's delaying* so long.

What we disliked was Herbert's *delaying*, not Herbert himself. The emphasis is upon the act of delaying, rather than upon the person. Therefore the gerund *delaying* must be used as object of the verb, and the noun must be **in** the genitive case.

Use the genitive case of a noun with the gerund.

Exercises. A. In the following sentences point out the gerunds and explain how each is used. Give the part of speech of each of the italicized words and explain how each is used.

1. Did you hear about *Richard's* hurting his knee?
2. Mother is considering *my* taking a trip this summer.
3. Father will not sanction *her* traveling alone.
4. I was talking about *his* losing several chickens.
5. I know about *your* finding the dollar.
6. Mother is opposed to *our* staying down town after dark.
7. Mother disapproves of *their* playing football.

B. In the following sentences choose the correct form and state your reason:

1. We do not like (Ruth, Ruth's) playing.
2. We enjoyed (you, your) entertaining.
3. He heard about (us, our) winning the prize.
4. I knew of (them, their) studying grammar.
5. Father objected to (me, my) withdrawing from school.
6. (Me, My) playing football worries mother.
7. I had not heard about (his, him) going to Europe.
8. What do you think of (his, him) acting so rudely?
9. Have you heard about (his, him) studying Greek?
10. I did not know of (them, their) returning to the city.
11. We did not inquire about (his, him) leaving.
12. (Me, My) entering high school this year was a surprise.
13. We appreciated (you, your) inquiring about us.
14. We did not know that (us, our) staying here would inconvenience you.
15. We had already been told of (them, their) making plans for a party.

C. Write five sentences containing gerunds preceded by possessive adjectives, and five containing gerunds preceded by nouns in the genitive case.

174. Writing Biographical Sketches

When a man or a woman has rendered valuable service to the world, other people are interested in knowing something about the famous person's life. You are eager to know, for instance, what kind of boy Lincoln was, and what Washington did as a young man. You wonder whether or not Whittier wrote poetry when he was a boy, and what kind of life Longfellow led. The answers to such questions may be found in a biography. Perhaps some of you have read biographies.

A biography should tell something about the person's

childhood, his youth and education, his later life, and his achievements. For instance, if you are studying an author, you can find out from his biography the circumstances under which his writings were produced, and how they were received. If you are reading the biography of an explorer, you would expect to find in it an account of his adventures and discoveries.

The writer of a biography, a biographer, usually includes anecdotes or interesting incidents in the life of the person about whom he is writing. Do you recall an interesting incident or anecdote related in some biography which you have read?

The writer of a biography must have in mind an outline somewhat like the following:

I. Early life

1. Parents
2. Birth (date, place)
3. Early schooling
4. University
5. Important events in early life that determine later life
6. Anecdotes

II. Later life

1. Life work
2. Travels
3. Achievements
4. Writings
5. Incidents
6. Traits of character
7. Home life
8. Death
9. Influence

Exercises. A. A short biography may be spoken of as a biographical sketch. Write a biographical sketch of one of the following persons. Make an outline first.

George Washington	John Greenleaf Whittier
Abraham Lincoln	Henry W. Longfellow
Theodore Roosevelt	Samuel L. Clemens (Mark Twain)
Thomas Jefferson	Charles A. Lindbergh
Robert E. Lee	Louisa M. Alcott
Andrew Jackson	Robert Louis Stevenson
Benjamin Franklin	Elias Howe
Daniel Boone	Alice Freeman Palmer
Clara Barton	Susan B. Anthony
Thomas A. Edison	Frances E. Willard

B. Write a biographical sketch of an important citizen of your city or state, or of some person you know.

C. An autobiography is the history of one's own life. Write your autobiography, using the following outline:

1. Your family
2. Your birth (date, place)
3. Your life before you entered school
4. Your school life
5. Your vacations
6. Interesting incidents in your life
7. Your plans for the future

Words Often Mispronounced. Give the correct pronunciation of each of the following words. If you are not sure how they should be pronounced, consult your dictionary. Repeat the correct pronunciation until you are sure of it.

though	forest	often	recognize
through	evening	wealth	yesterday

thorough	contrary	always	toward
breath	tremendous	breadth	genuine
breathe	library	length	tired
think	perhaps	health	fellow
third	poem	whether	yes
strength	yellow	when	window
white	fourth	column	burglar

175. Voice

Read these two sentences carefully. Is the same idea expressed by both of them?

1. James rowed the boat.
2. The boat was rowed by James.

Although both of these sentences express the same idea, the way in which it is expressed is different. In the first sentence the subject, *James*, is the doer of the action expressed by the verb *rowed*. The receiver of the action is the object, *boat*. What kind of verb is *rowed*? Since the subject in this sentence is represented as acting, the verb *rowed* is said to be in the **active voice**.

Active voice is that form of the transitive verb which indicates that the subject is the doer of an act.

In the second sentence the noun *boat*, which was the object in the first sentence, becomes the subject. But although it is the subject, it is the receiver of the action expressed by the verb *was rowed*. In this sentence the doer of the action is expressed by the phrase *by James*. Since the subject in this sentence is represented as being acted upon, and therefore as passive, the verb *was rowed* is said to be in the **passive voice**. How is the transitive

verb *rowed* in sentence 1 changed to the passive voice in sentence 2?

Passive voice is that form of the transitive verb which represents the subject as the receiver of an action.

The passive voice of a verb is formed by placing before its past participle the various tenses of the verb *be*. Thus, the present tense, passive voice, of the verb *missed* is:

PRESENT TENSE

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
I <i>am</i> missed	We <i>are</i> missed
You <i>are</i> missed	You <i>are</i> missed
He, she, or it <i>is</i> missed	They <i>are</i> missed

In the other tenses, in the passive voice, the forms for the first person singular are: PAST, *I was missed*; FUTURE, *I shall be missed*; PRESENT PERFECT, *I have been missed*; PAST PERFECT, *I had been missed*; FUTURE PERFECT, *I shall have been missed*. Give all persons, both in the singular and plural, of each of these tenses.

Point out the form of the verb *be* which precedes the past participle in each of these illustrations.

Since only transitive verbs express action which is carried over to an object, only transitive verbs have voice.

At the beginning of this lesson you learned that the same idea could be expressed by two sentences differing from each other only in form. The verb in the first sentence is in the active voice, and the verb in the second sentence is in the passive voice. Any sentence containing a transitive verb in the active voice can be changed to another sentence containing the same verb in the passive voice, without any essential change in the meaning of the sentence.

In the following sentences, which verbs are in the active voice? Which are in the passive voice? Change all verbs in the active voice to the passive, and all verbs in the passive voice to the active, without essentially changing the meaning of the sentences. Which of these sentences contain intransitive verbs? Do these verbs have voice?

1. Bell invented the telephone.
2. The child was bitten by a dog.
3. I made that box.
4. The sun attracts the earth.
5. The engine draws the train.
6. The horse was sold by my father.
7. We study English in school.
8. That story was read by one of the girls in our class.
9. Mabel wrote a letter to her brother.
10. The horse was struck by lightning.
11. Burton Hughes was escorted to the platform by Mr. James.
12. John sounded the fire alarm.
13. This summer I saw ripe figs for the first time.
14. Father cut our old tree down.
15. Newspapers are read daily by all Americans.
16. I ran as fast as I could.
17. The children romped merrily.
18. The wind will blow that old apple tree down.
19. That book has been damaged by some one.
20. We paddled the canoe a mile.

Exercises. A. Point out the verbs and verb phrases in the following sentences. What is the tense, person, and number of each, and the reason for its person and number? Tell whether the verb or verb phrase is intransitive or transitive. If transitive, what is the voice?

1. My brother towed me across the lake.
2. The dog was shot by an unkind man.
3. He fell out of the tree into the river.
4. I drove my car to town.
5. These blankets were made by the Indians.
6. The snow came silently in the night.
7. The wind blew steadily all the morning.
8. The men painted the house.
9. The lawn was mown by Henry two days ago.
10. We shall make the candy tonight.
11. A thorn ran into my finger.
12. He came to Chicago yesterday.
13. The bird had been crippled by a heartless boy.
14. Mr. Case has bought an automobile.
15. The soldiers had frightened the Indians away.
16. They were very eccentric.
17. I shall be taught by my older sister.
18. Will those goods be sold by you before morning?
19. I feel happy.
20. Mother always washes the dishes.
21. I hit the target three times.
22. Will he buy some wood?

B. Analyze the sentences in Exercise A.

C. Rewrite the sentences in A containing transitive verbs, changing the active voice to the passive, and the passive to the active.

D. Which of the three principal parts of a verb is used with auxiliaries to form the passive voice? What auxiliary verb is always used? Read these sentences, choosing the correct verb form. Then tell why the form chosen is the correct one. See how rapidly the class can do this. One minute and thirty seconds is fair time; a minute is excellent.

1. The tree was (blew, blowed, blown) down by the storm-
2. My knife was (broken, broke) by John.
3. Was he (chose, chosen) by our side?
4. He was (chosen, chose) by the other side.
5. Why wasn't it (done, did)?
6. It will be (did, done) soon.
7. It is (done, did).
8. That is beautifully (drew, drawn).
9. Has all the water been (drank, drunk)?
10. No, but it will soon be (drank, drunk).
11. Is the pie all (ate, eaten)?
12. It was (gave, give, given) to me.
13. Was it (give, gave, given) you to keep?
14. Was the bell (rang, rung) by the teacher?
15. It was (rang, rung) by the janitor.
16. The dog was not (ran, run) over by a truck.
17. He has never been (ran, run) over yet.
18. But he will be (ran, run) over some day.
19. He was (saw, seen) by everybody.
20. He was badly (shook, shaken) up.
21. That song is (sang, sung) by everybody now.
22. It was (sang, sung) last year.
23. But it will not be (sang, sung) next year.
24. He was (spoke, spoken) to.
25. Were you (spoke, spoken) to?
26. It was (took, taken) from our porch.
27. It should not be (took, taken) without permission.
28. The dress was (wore, worn) to church.
29. Was this letter (wrote, written) by the teacher?
30. It is (wrote, written) well.
31. My glove has been (tore, torn) for some time.

E. Write the sentences in Exercise D, using the correct form. Analyze each.

176. Explanations

Choose one of the subjects given below, or a subject of your own, for an oral explanation. Think carefully of the various steps involved in the operations from beginning to end, and tell clearly and as briefly as you can just how each step is performed.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| 1. How to Pitch a Tent | 10. How to Build a Fire |
| 2. How to Fill a Silo | 11. How to Make Bread |
| 3. How to Learn to Swim | 12. How to Make Ice Cream |
| 4. How to Make a Pie | 13. How to Make Iced Tea |
| 5. How to Put a Cream Separator Together | 14. How to Make Iced Coffee |
| 6. How to Raise Corn | 15. How to Can String (Snap) Beans |
| 7. How to Care for a Bed of Tulips | 16. How to Make Lemonade |
| 8. How to Make a Christmas Present | 17. How to Can Young Beets |
| 9. How to Knit a Scarf | 18. How to Can Sweet Corn |
| | 19. How to Can Young Carrots |
| | 20. How to Bake Beans |

177. Mood

Notice the form of the verb in the following sentences:

1. He *is* contented.
2. *Is* he contented?

In the first of these sentences the verb makes a statement of fact. In the second sentence the verb asks a question of fact. The manner in which a verb makes an assertion is called its **mood**. The verb *is* in these two sentences is in the **indicative mood**. Such a verb asserts a fact. Whether or not it is really a fact is no concern of grammar.

The **indicative mood** is that form of the verb which states a fact or asks a question.

Why are the italicized verbs and verb phrases in the following sentences in the indicative mood?

1. We *walked* nearly a mile yesterday.
2. How many of you *went*?
3. I *liked* that story.
4. We *are* glad that you *have come*.
5. *Did* you *start* early?

Now notice these sentences:

1. I wish that he *were* contented. (But he is not.)
2. If that *be* true, you will not be punished. (But I doubt its being true.)
3. If he *were* contented, all would be well. (But he is not contented.)

In each of these sentences the verb expresses a thought which is contrary to the fact, and is said to be in the **subjunctive mood**.

The subjunctive mood is that form of the verb which expresses a wish, an extreme doubt, or a contrary-to-fact condition.

The subjunctive mood is not used very often, and except in the case of the present and the past tense of the subjunctive of the verb *be*, there are few forms that are different from the indicative forms. The following forms of the verb *be* should be memorized. Remember, as you learn them, that these forms are usually preceded by *if*, *though*, *lest*, or *that*.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

<i>Present Tense</i>		<i>Past Tense</i>	
I be	We be	I were	We were
You be	You be	You were	You were
He, she, or it be	They be	He, she, or it were	They were

How do these forms differ from the corresponding indicative forms?

In verbs other than the verb *be*, the one form of the subjunctive that differs from the corresponding indicative form is the third person singular of the present tense. Notice what the difference is:

<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Subjunctive</i>
He has	He have
He does	He do
He gives	He give
He comes	He come

Explain why each of the italicized verbs in the following sentences is in the subjunctive mood. Give the tense, person, and number of each, and tell what the corresponding indicative form is.

1. I wish that it *were* cooler.
2. If I *were* he, I should study harder.
3. If that *be* true, Ruth's statement is false.
4. *Were* I wealthy, I should travel a good deal.
5. If he *be* honest, he will pay his debts.
6. I wish I *were* going.
7. If he *lie*, it is a grievous fault, but I think that he is not lying.
8. If your statement *be* correct, I shall be very much surprised.
9. If this *were* Saturday, I should be in the woods.
10. He wished that he *were* a bird.

Besides the indicative and the subjunctive there is a third mood, which is illustrated in these sentences:

1. Please *go*.
2. *Hasten!*

The first of these sentences expresses a request, while the second gives a command. The verbs *go* and *hasten* in these sentences are in the **imperative mood**.

The imperative mood is that form of the verb which expresses a command or a request.

The imperative mood is always in the second person, because in giving a command or making a request we speak *to* some one. The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is, therefore, always *you*, either expressed or understood. The imperative form of the verb *is* is *be*; as,

Be contented.

What is the mood of the italicized verbs in the following sentences. Why?

1. *Keep* out of the way.
2. *Ask* no more questions.
3. *Come* back early.
4. *Take* that away.
5. Please *try* harder.

Exercises. A. Give the mood, and the reason for the mood, of each of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. Come here, Alice, please.
2. Oh, if it were Sunday!
3. May I leave now, Miss Brown?
4. We always went to school regularly.
5. If I were she, I should not wear so many colors at once.
6. Beat this rug for me, Carl.
7. Were you at the fair?
8. If the undercurrent were not so strong, swimming would not be dangerous.
9. If we had lived near the water, we should have learned to swim.
10. Please, Doris, bring me my parasol.

B. Write two sentences in which the verb is in the indicative mood; two in which the verb is in the imperative mood; and six in which the verb is in the subjunctive mood.

C. You should now be able to tell the following facts about a verb:

1. Kind (Transitive or Intransitive)
2. Tense
3. Person and Number
4. Voice
5. Mood

When you give these facts about a verb, you are said to parse it. When you state the person and number, give also the reason for the person and number.

Parse the verbs in the following sentences:

1. I have many books in my library.
2. Strike while the iron is hot.
3. I wish that I were in the park.
4. If he be guilty, the evidence does not show it.
5. The fact that she left was a surprise to us.
6. Ask questions if you wish.
7. Be honest, for honesty is the best policy.
8. The men have been working on the building.
9. Was this house built by the owner?
10. The man who had been chosen president of the club resigned.
11. The secretary and treasurer has resigned.
12. The president and the clerk are present.
13. If I were you, I should go.
14. Be careful, in your letter, to state your qualifications.
15. I wish that the weather were pleasant.

178. Business Letters—Letters of Application

During the summer, some of you may want to obtain business positions. When you have decided where you would like to work, you may either apply in person, or write a letter of application to the company's employment manager.

In making a personal application, remember that one of the first things the employment manager will notice is your appearance. Your clothes should be neat, your hair carefully combed, your hands and nails clean, and your shoes shined. Speak clearly and distinctly, with your eyes directed toward the person whom you are addressing, and be careful to stand or sit erect. Neatness, good manners, and a quiet, businesslike appearance are three attributes that are sure to count in an applicant's favor.

If you make your application by letter, remember that employers receive a great many such letters. If yours is not written in such a way as to make a favorable impression, it is likely to be thrown into the wastebasket.

Be careful, in the first place, to make your letter neat. Secondly, be sure that it is correct as to capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and paragraphing. A letter of application is so important that it should be entirely rewritten if corrections need to be made.

In your letter, tell the employer what education you have had, and mention also any experience you may have had in business. If there are other facts about yourself which you think the employer would be interested in, you may include them.

You should also give, in your letter, the names of certain people to whom the employer may write for information

about you. These names are called *references*. Your references should include your school principal and one or two other persons who know you and are willing to give an opinion about your ability. Your parents, however, should not be given as references, because they may be prejudiced in your favor.

Below is given a letter of application sent in response to an advertisement:

4840 Norledge Avenue
Indianapolis, Indiana
June 14, 1923

Mr. Henry S. Clements
1248 State Street
Indianapolis, Indiana
Dear Sir:

I am writing to apply for the position of office boy which you advertised in last night's *News*. I am in the seventh grade of the Scarritt School and have made good grades. I am fourteen years old and large for my age. I know something about the duties of an office boy, and if you employ me, I shall work hard to learn them all.

My references are Mr. H. F. Snelling, principal of the Scarritt School, and Mr. John Jones, 2 Bow Street.

If you think that you may be able to use me, I shall be very glad to apply in person.

Respectfully yours,
Charles Anderson

Exercises. A. Write a letter of application for each of the following:

1. A position as driver of a grocery wagon
2. A position as clerk in a general store
3. A position in a stock room

4. A position in a book store
5. A position as a driver's helper
6. A position as clerk in a jewelry store
7. Any other position you would like to have

B. Write an application in answer to an advertised position for a helper in a summer resort.

C. Answer the following advertisement:

WANTED—High school graduate for office work. Must have knowledge of bookkeeping and stenography. Give age, experience, and references. Address Smith Publishing Co., 46 East St., Newark, N. J.

D. Answer the following advertisement:

WANTED—Office boy or girl for general office work. Must be accurate at figures and write a good hand. References required. P. O. Box 21, City.

E. Find in a newspaper the advertisement of a position which you think you could fill acceptably. Copy the advertisement and write a letter of application for the position.

179. Short Talks on Citizenship

Let each member of the class interview some older person who has the reputation of being a good citizen. In this interview, ask the following question: "What qualities must boys and girls possess to be good citizens?" You will probably be answered by several statements. These should be written in good form and read aloud in class.

As these statements are read by the members of the class, each new quality mentioned should be written upon the board. When all the reports have been read, the list of qualities should be discussed. Any qualities which the

majority of the class think are not essential to good citizenship may be omitted from the list, and if there are others which the class think should be included, these may be added. The list in its final form will thus represent the opinion of the class as to the qualities essential to good citizenship.

Each member of the class should then prepare a short talk on good citizenship, adding, of course, to the ideas already discussed, any of his own.

Word Study. Notice carefully how each of the words given below is spelled, and if you do not know its meaning, consult your dictionary. Use each word in a sentence to show that you understand its meaning and know how to use it correctly.

complement	allusion	calvary	formally
compliment	illusion	cavalry	formerly
chute	affected	canvas	alley
shoot	effected	canvass	ally
prescribe	desert	current	track
describe	dessert	currant	tract
device	sight	decent	statue
devise	cite	descent	stature
	site	dissent	statute

180. Telegrams

When a message is important, and must reach the person for whom it is intended in the shortest possible time, it is usually sent by telegraph. There are four kinds of telegrams in common use: the *day message*, the *day letter*, the *night message*, and the *night letter*. The rates for telegrams are

determined by the distance, the number of words, and the speed with which they are to be sent. In the case of the day message and the night message, there is an extra charge for each word over ten. In the case of the day letter and the night letter, there is an extra charge for all words over fifty.

In all telegrams, the name and the address of the receiver and the name of the sender are sent without charge. But punctuation marks are counted as words. You should, therefore, try to express your message so that the meaning will be clear without punctuation. If, however, you wish to include punctuation marks in the message, spell them out. Often the word *stop* is used to indicate a period; as,

WILL BE HOME TOMORROW STOP LEAVE FOR
BOSTON FRIDAY

When you send a day message or a night message, it is necessary to condense what you wish to say. Great care should be taken with the wording of these messages to make sure that the meaning is clear. The same precautions should be taken with the day letter and the night letter, although you are at liberty to use more words.

Suppose that your father, after starting on a business trip, finds that he can make arrangements for you to finish it with him. He might then send this night letter:

Cleveland, Ohio

April 20, 1921

Mr. James Brown, Jr.
4724 Stanton Ave.
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

I have finished my work sooner than I expected and have four days to play. We can have some fun if you will take seven

A.M. train from Poughkeepsie next Friday. I will meet you upon its arrival Niagara Falls. Wire reply Huron Hotel Buffalo. Tell mother am feeling well.

Father

In a night letter or a day letter there is usually space for complete sentences. Notice, however, that the writer of this night letter found it necessary to shorten the last four sentences. If he had not included his Buffalo address, what might have happened?

This is the reply:

Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

April 21, 1921

Mr. James Brown

Huron Hotel Buffalo, N. Y.

Will arrive Michigan Central Niagara Falls six Friday afternoon. Everybody well.

Jim

What words are omitted? Will Mr. Brown know where to meet his son? If you lived in Chicago, where there are several stations, what would you do if a friend telegraphed you from St. Louis, "Will arrive at noon Friday"?

Exercise. 1. Suppose that you have two hours to stay over in St. Paul. Write a night message to a friend in St. Paul telling her that you are passing through there and would like to see her.

2. Write a night letter from Indianapolis to a friend in Pittsburgh telling him that you will stop off to see him on a certain date if he is going to be in town. Ask him to telegraph you before you start. Write the answer in a day message.

3. Telegraph a hotel, asking to have a room reserved for you.

4. Suppose that at the last moment you have to cancel a trip with a party of friends who live in another city. Write one of them a day letter explaining matters.

181. Classified Advertisements

All newspapers run departments in which people may advertise lost and found articles, houses to rent, positions wanted, help wanted, and so on. Since the newspapers usually charge for these insertions by the word, the advertiser must exercise good judgment in the number of words he uses. Nevertheless, he must state enough details to interest some reader in what he is advertising. Read the following advertisements and decide whether there are enough details included. What, if anything, would you add?

LOST: Angora cat, white, age nine months. Return to 643 Wilson Avenue. Reward.

FOUND: Pocketbook containing money. Owner may have it by paying for this advertisement.

WANTED: A young man to work in a drug store. References necessary. Apply at 8th and Grand.

Exercise. What should be included in a "House-for-Sale" advertisement? In a "House-for-Rent" advertisement? In a "Position-Wanted" advertisement? After looking over the classified advertisements of a daily newspaper to see what advertisers usually include, write these three advertisements. Reread them to see whether it is possible to omit any words.

182. Introducing People

First impressions are often lasting. It is therefore important that another person's first impression of you should be favorable. Consequently you will need to know

the proper way of responding to an introduction and the correct way of introducing your friends or acquaintances. There are a few simple "Do's" and "Don'ts" which will help you in this important matter of introductions.

First, a man should always stand while he is being introduced. If the introduction takes place out-of-doors or wherever hats are worn, he must remove his hat, whether he is being introduced to a man or to a woman. If he stands talking to ladies he must keep his hat off. A woman need not rise to have a man presented to her unless he is much older, or unless there is some special reason for being very gracious,

Second, a man usually shakes hands with another man to whom he is introduced, but he does *not* shake hands with a woman unless she offers her hand first.

Third, a man is usually presented *to* a woman. Exceptions to this rule occur (1) when the man is much older than the woman or (2) when he is so distinguished as to be worthy of some special honor. In such cases, the woman may be introduced *to* the man. Ordinarily you would say, "Miss Smith, may I present Mr. Jones?" or "Helen, may I present Harry Brown?" But in case of the exceptions you might say, "Dr. White, may I present my school friend, Helen Smith?" or "Father, may I present Jean Brown?"

Fourth, when you are introducing a young person and an older person, present the younger person *to* the older person, as "Mother, may I present Grace Jones?"

Fifth, in presenting one person to a group of people, you may simply mention the name of each person in the group, and the name of the person introduced; as, "Miss Smith,

Mr. Jones; Miss Brown, Mr. Jones; Mr. Harris, Mr. Jones." This is an abbreviated way of saying, "Miss Smith, may I present Mr. Jones; Miss Brown, may I present Mr. Jones; Mr. Harris, may I present Mr. Jones?"

Sixth, when you are introducing people, be sure to pronounce their names clearly and distinctly, as it is embarrassing not to hear the name of the person to whom one is introduced. Never say, "May I make you acquainted." Say either, "May I *introduce*" or "May I *present*." A person is *presented* to a superior; equals are *introduced* to each other.

Now, of course, you wish to know what to say when people are introduced to you. Don't say, "Pleased to meet you." It is best to repeat the person's name, as "How do you do, Mr. Jones," or "I am very glad to meet you, Mrs. White." Repeating the person's name helps to make him feel that you are really glad to know him, and it also helps you to remember his name. These two responses, or forms of acknowledgment, are in good taste everywhere.

Exercises. A. For the boys:

1. Show what to say and do if you are meeting (a) another boy at a party; (b) a girl at a party; (c) a man on the street; (d) a lady on the street.

2. What do you say if you are introducing (a) a boy friend to your mother, or your father? (b) a boy friend to two girls? (c) a boy friend to another boy? (d) a group composed of your father, your mother, a girl friend, and a boy friend?

B. For the girls:

1. Show what to say and do if you are meeting (a) a boy at a party; (b) a girl of your own age at a party; (c) an older woman at a party; (d) a man in a store or on the street.

2. What do you say if you are introducing (a) a girl friend to your mother? (b) a boy friend to your mother or your father? (c) a boy friend to a girl friend? (d) a girl friend to another girl friend? (e) a group composed of your mother, your father, two girl friends, and a boy friend?

183. Leavetaking

Once upon a time society moved a great deal more slowly in this world than it does now. People had time to write long, careful letters; pay long, leisurely visits; and take elaborate, lengthy farewells of each other. But nowadays our letters are brief and to the point. Often, instead of writing, we telephone or telegraph. Our messages are usually short and our language frequently careless and abrupt. Too often we say good-by to each other in some such way as "So-long," or "See you later." Perhaps you have heard some boy or girl express appreciation of a party or entertainment by such a phrase as "*Some* party!" Now we may be busier than people used to be, and may not have time for graceful curtsies and courtly bows, but we *can* all of us take time to be courteous and polite, and we should be particularly careful to express our appreciation when we are taking leave of some one who has entertained us.

Of course you remember that a note of thanks should always be sent to the host or hostess after you have been visiting. Today you will learn what to say as you take leave. It is unnecessary to say that the expressions used as illustrations in the first paragraph are in very bad taste, as are all similar expressions.

When you are leaving a home after a brief call, you may simply say, "Good-afternoon, Mr. Jones," or "Good-by,

Mrs. Jones." If you have met some other caller there, it is courteous to say, "I am very glad to have met you, Miss Smith," or "I hope I shall see you again, Miss Smith."

If you have been entertained in a more formal way, as at a luncheon, a dinner, or a tea, you should express your appreciation of the courtesy in some such way as, "I have had a delightful time, Mrs. White," or "I have enjoyed being here very much, Mrs. White," in addition to saying, "Good-afternoon," or "Good-night." This little word of appreciation may be varied to suit the occasion, but it should never be omitted. If you have had dinner at a chum's house, and the chum's mother is not present when you leave, don't fail to say something like this: "Mary, please tell your mother for me how much I enjoyed being here. I am sorry not to tell her this myself."

If someone takes you to the theatre, or for an automobile ride, don't fail to express your thanks in leaving; as, "I enjoyed the play very much, Mrs. White. Thank you for a very pleasant afternoon;" or "Thank you for your kindness in bringing me home, Mr. White;" or "It has been a delightful ride, Mrs. Smith."

Don't think that these courtesies are unnecessary, or that they can be postponed until you are older. They help to make life pleasant, and are the outward signs of good breeding. They are simple courtesies that should be extended to all of your friends.

Exercise. Make up and dramatize little scenes in which different people take the parts of guests and hosts or hostesses. Illustrate the correct way of introducing people and the correct and courteous way to take leave of people on different occasions.

184. The Short Story

What facts do you already know about short story writing? Read "The Gift of the Magi" given below to see whether or not it meets the requirements of a good short story.

One dollar and eighty-seven cents. That was all. And sixty cents of it was in pennies. Three times Della counted it. One dollar and eighty-seven cents. And the next day would be Christmas.

There was clearly nothing to do but flop down on the shabby little couch and howl. So Della did it.

Della finished her cry and attended to her cheeks with the powder rag. She stood by the window and looked out dully at a gray cat walking a gray fence in a gray backyard. Tomorrow would be Christmas Day, and she had only \$1.87 with which to buy Jim a present. She had been saving every penny she could for months, with this result. Twenty dollars a week doesn't go far. Expenses had been greater than she had calculated. They always are. Only \$1.87 to buy a present for Jim. Her Jim. Many a happy hour she had spent planning for something nice for him. Something fine and rare and sterling—something a little bit near to being worthy the honor of being owned by Jim.

Suddenly she whirled from the window and stood before the glass. Her eyes were shining brilliantly, but her face had lost its colour within twenty seconds. Rapidly she pulled down her hair and let it fall to its full length.

Now, there were two possessions of the James Dillingham Youngs in which they both took a mighty pride. One was Jim's gold watch that had been his father's and his grandfather's. The other was Della's hair.

So now Della's beautiful hair fell about her, rippling and shining like a cascade of brown waters. It reached below her

knee and made itself almost a garment for her. And then she did it up again nervously and quickly. Once she faltered for a minute and stood still while a tear or two splashed on the worn red carpet.

On went her old brown jacket; on went her old brown hat. With a whirl of skirts and with the brilliant sparkle still in her eyes, she fluttered out the door and down the stairs to the street.

Where she stopped the sign read: "Mme. Sofronie. Hair Goods of All Kinds." One flight up Della ran, and collected herself, panting.

"Will you buy my hair?" asked Della.

"I buy hair," said Madame. "Take yer hat off and let's have a sight at the looks of it."

Down rippled the brown cascade.

"Twenty dollars," said Madame, lifting the mass with a practised hand.

"Give it to me quick," said Della.

Oh, and the next two hours tripped by on rosy wings. Forget the hashed metaphor. She was ransacking the stores for Jim's present.

She found it at last. It surely had been made for Jim and no one else. There was no other like it in any of the stores, and she had turned all of them inside out. It was a platinum fob chain simple and chaste in design, properly proclaiming its value by substance alone—as all good things should do. It was even worthy of *The Watch*. As soon as she saw it she knew that it must be Jim's. It was like him. Quietness and value—the description applied to both. Twenty-one dollars they took from her for it, and she hurried home with the 87 cents. With that chain on his watch Jim might be properly anxious about the time in any company. Grand as the watch was, he sometimes looked at it on the sly on account of the old leather strap that he used in place of a chain.

When Della reached home her intoxication gave way a little

to prudence and reason. She got out her curling irons and lighted the gas and went to work repairing the ravages made by generosity added to love.

At seven o'clock the coffee was made and the frying-pan was on the back of the stove hot and ready to cook the chops.

Jim was never late. Della doubled the fob chain in her hand and sat on the corner of the table near the door that he always entered. Then she heard his step on the stair away down on the first flight, and she turned white for just a moment. She had a habit of saying little silent prayers about the simplest everyday things, and now she whispered: "Please God, make him think I am still pretty."

The door opened and Jim stepped in and closed it. He looked thin and very serious. Poor fellow, he was only twenty-two—and to be burdened with a family! He needed a new overcoat and he was without gloves.

Jim stepped inside the door, as immovable as a setter at the scent of quail. His eyes were fixed upon Della, and there was an expression in them that she could not read, and it terrified her. It was not anger, nor surprise, nor disapproval, nor horror, nor any of the sentiments that she had been prepared for. He simply stared at her fixedly with that peculiar expression on his face.

Della wriggled off the table and went for him.

"Jim, darling," she cried, "don't look at me that way. I had my hair cut off and sold it because I could not live through another Christmas without giving you a present. It'll grow out again—you won't mind, will you? I just had to do it. My hair grows awfully fast. Say 'Merry Christmas!' Jim, and let's be happy. You don't know what a nice—what a beautiful, nice gift I've got for you."

"You've cut off your hair?" asked Jim, laboriously, as if he had not arrived at that patent fact yet even after the hardest mental labour.

"Cut it off and sold it," said Della. "Don't you like me just as well, anyhow?"

Jim drew a package from his overcoat pocket and threw it upon the table.

"Don't make any mistake, Dell," he said, "about me. I don't think there's anything in the way of a haircut or a shave or a shampoo that could make me like my girl any less. But if you'll unwrap that package you may see why you had me going a while at first."

White fingers and nimble tore at the string and paper. And then an ecstatic scream of joy; and then, alas! a quick feminine change to hysterical tears and wails.

For there lay The Combs—the set of combs, side and back, that Della had worshipped for long in a Broadway window. She hugged them to her bosom, and at length she was able to look up with dim eyes and a smile and say: "My hair grows so fast, Jim."

And then Della leaped up like a little singed cat and cried, "Oh, oh!"

Jim had not yet seen his beautiful present. She held it out to him eagerly upon her open palm. The dull precious metal seemed to flash with a reflection of her bright and ardent spirit.

"Isn't it a dandy, Jim? I hunted all over town to find it. You'll have to look at the time a hundred times a day now. Give me your watch. I want to see how it looks on it."

Instead of obeying, Jim tumbled down on the couch and put his hands under the back of his head and smiled.

"Dell," said he, "let's put our Christmas presents away and keep 'em a while. They're too nice to use just at present. I sold the watch to get the money to buy your combs. And now suppose you put the chops on."

O. HENRY—Adapted

Everyone likes to read a good short story, but few know how to write one.

The Introduction. As you already know, a short story should have an interesting introduction; for, unless a story begins in an entertaining way, no one cares to read further. Read again Lesson 34. How does Louisa M. Alcott begin *Little Women*? After you had read the beginning of "The Gift of the Magi," did you want to read the whole story? Show, by quoting from the story, how the introduction arouses the reader's interest.

The Body of the Story. In Lesson 35 you learned that the main part of a story is sometimes called the body of the story, and that the writer should stick to the point in narrating the incidents which make up the body of the story. Mention, in order, the incidents which make up the body of this story by O. Henry. Does the writer stick to the point? Notice that the conversation, as well as the incidents related, plays its part in developing the action of the story.

In a short story, the events narrated lead up to a point of highest interest called the climax. The climax of the story should come as a surprise; the reader must not know what the ending is to be until he comes to it. In order that his interest may be held to the end of the story, he must be kept in *suspense*. But at the same time, the climax should not be a shock; it should follow naturally what has gone before. What is the surprise, or climax, of "The Gift of the Magi"?

Each event in a short story is a sign post that points toward the climax. These events, growing out of one another, and leading up to a climax, constitute what is called the *plot*. In order to get a picture of the plot of "The Gift of the Magi," let us place the main events upon "steps" leading up to the climax.

Jim's confession that he has sold
his watch to buy the combs

The presentation
of the combs

The purchase
of the fob

The selling
of her hair

Della's plan

The Conclusion. You learned in Lesson 36 that the ending of a short story may be spoken of as the conclusion. Sometimes the climax comes at the very end of the story, and so is also the conclusion of the story. Sometimes a story ends in another way. In the stories which you have studied, however, the climax, or surprise, comes at the very end. "The Gift of the Magi" concludes with the climax of the story. Is this conclusion a good one? Why?

Exercises. *A.* Write a short story about two girls who are walking along a railroad track, shortly before train time. Before you can choose the happenings of your story, you must decide upon the climax, or surprise. Then plan the events. Use a diagram, like that given for "The Gift of the Magi," to show what events you choose.

B. After deciding upon a climax, the events leading up to the climax, and the introduction, write a short story upon one of the following subjects or upon a subject of your own choice:

1. In a Storm at Sea
2. Never Again
3. A Narrow Escape
4. A Disappointment
5. Not a Burglar After All

185. Review—Nouns and Pronouns

In order to prepare yourself to answer the questions in this lesson, review Lessons 13, 14, 24, 25, 28, 31, 32, 33, 43, 52, 78, 79, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 141, 142, and 151.

What is a noun? What is a common noun? a proper noun? a collective noun? Write ten common nouns; ten proper nouns. Write ten collective nouns. How is the plural of a noun usually formed? Illustrate.

How many kinds of pronouns have you studied? Give an example of each kind.

What three genders of nouns and pronouns are there? Illustrate.

What three persons may a noun or personal pronoun be in? Illustrate. Name the personal pronouns.

What is the antecedent of a pronoun? In what ways should a pronoun agree with its antecedent? Illustrate.

What cases may a noun or pronoun be in? Write sentences in which you use a pronoun: (1) as the subject of a verb; (2) as a predicate pronoun; (3) as the direct object of a verb; (4) as the object of a preposition; (5) as an indirect object. Tell the case of the pronoun in each sentence which you give.

Exercise. Analyze the following sentences. Parse the nouns and personal pronouns. Point out all other pronouns, tell what kind each is, and how it is used.

1. The long circus parade marched slowly through the crowded streets to the circus grounds.
2. To whom are you speaking?
3. Although Alice practices every day, she does not play so well as Maud does.
4. Can you see the colonial house with the vines upon it?

5. To them who conquer belong the spoils.
6. The class did its work well.
7. Florence Nightingale did a great service to her country.
8. Please return the magazines which I gave you yesterday.
9. Who went to the picnic?
10. Only a few of us went.
11. Here are the books of which you spoke.
12. Ours are here; yours are in the other room.
13. Is either of these yours?
14. I found two pencils. Which is his?
15. This is a hard lesson, but I shall try to do it.
16. Any of you who do this work before Friday will receive extra credit.
17. Give me the pencil.
18. They showed the book to us.
19. He was a very successful business man, but he never seemed very happy.
20. Everyone is ready.
21. Some of those are mine.
22. Hers is not here.
23. What are you going to do about it?
24. Each of them received a high mark.
25. None of you will be excused from taking the examinations tomorrow.
26. We asked them to go with us.
27. Neither of them can go.
28. He is the only person whom I have seen.
29. The story that he told us was interesting.

186. Review—Verbs

Review Lessons 15, 29, 67, 68, 69, 70, 78, 79, 132, 133, 170, 172, 175, and 177.

What is a verb? What six tenses have you studied?

Name and define each. What is the ending of the third person singular of the present tense of any verb in the indicative mood? What are the principal parts of a verb? Illustrate. Have you learned the principal parts of all the verbs in Lesson 133? If not, now is your last opportunity to learn them. Explain how each of the following tenses is formed: past, future, present perfect, past perfect, future perfect. Illustrate. When the verb in the principal clause of a complex sentence is in a past tense, what tense should the verb in the subordinate clause be in?

With what does a verb agree in person and number? Illustrate.

What is a transitive verb? Illustrate. What is an intransitive verb? Illustrate. When is an intransitive verb called a complete verb? when a linking verb? Illustrate.

What kind of verbs have voice? What two voices are there? Define and illustrate each.

What three moods have you studied? Define and illustrate each.

Give the present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect tenses of the indicative mood of the verb *is*. Give the present and past tenses of the subjunctive mood of this verb. What is the imperative form of this verb?

What is meant by the progressive forms of a verb? by the emphatic forms? Illustrate. What is a participle? a gerund? an infinitive? Give an example of each.

Exercises. *A.* Parse all the verbs and verb phrases in the following sentences; point out the participles, infinitives, and gerunds, and explain how each is used.

1. I wish the hill were not so steep.
2. Did you ask him whether he had found his dog?

3. Cornelia said, "My boys are my jewels."
4. Have you read this book?
5. The steamboat was invented by Fulton.
6. Washington, seeing his opportunity, crossed the Delaware.
7. To cross the river now would be folly.
8. Speaking kindly to all means keeping one's temper.
9. This letter will be written in time for the postman to take it.
10. No one knew that he felt ill.
11. Please walk more slowly.
12. If the hill were not so steep, I should coast down it.
13. By the time you get to the top of the hill, I shall have reached the next town.
14. If he had not been so hasty, he might have succeeded.
15. Having walked so far, we were tired.
16. We were just leaving the house when you arrived.
17. Had you been driving long when we saw you?
18. That garden was planted by Harriet.
19. We do not like to travel after dark.
20. Traveling after dark along this road is dangerous.
21. Has either of you heard the story before?
22. Both of the boys drive carefully.
23. They did not hear us come in.
24. He has several pets.
25. Every one knows him.
26. Each of them had his own horse.
27. Neither of us has tried to drive yet.
28. None of the books is mine.
29. None of those pencils are mine.
30. Be careful, or you may fall.

B. Choose the correct form in the following sentences and give your reason in each case :

1. We (began, begun) to pack our things before breakfast.
2. When I (did, done) it, I knew it was wrong.
3. He must (of, have) gone an hour ago.
4. We (gave, give) him his books and he went home.
5. We (sang, sung) every song twice.
6. He (swam, swum) farther than any other person.
7. The boat (sank, sunk) rapidly.
8. I am almost (froze, frozen).
9. The old man slowly (drank, drunk) his tea.
10. The window's (broke, broken).
11. I was all (shook, shaken) up by the rough road.
12. He (saw, seen) us coming down the street.
13. I've (forgot, forgotten) what I was going to say.
14. He has (eat, eaten) everything up that we (give, gave) him.
15. He has (hid, hidden) the thimble in a place not far from you.

C. 1. Answer the following questions using *shall* or *will*.
Give your reason in each case:

1. How old shall you be next year?
 2. Will you promise to go?
 3. Will you keep your promise?
 4. Will he be able to come?
 5. Shall you go if nothing happens?
2. Supply *should* or *would*, giving your reason:
1. I — like to visit Japan.
 2. If they had taken some books with them, they — not have minded the delay.
 3. You — have seen the game if you had come with us.
 4. He — have won the race if he hadn't broken his oar.
 5. I — like to help.
 6. She said that she — go if she could.
 7. I know I — like your friend.

8. I — prefer to have you wait for me.
9. I — be sorry to have to go without you.
10. We — be delighted to have you go, too.

187. Review—Adjectives and Adverbs

Review Lessons 16, 17, 43, 44, 83, 88, 90 and 91.

What is an adjective? What kinds of adjectives have you studied? Illustrate in sentences. What is meant by the comparison of an adjective? How are adjectives compared? Illustrate.

Write one sentence containing an adjective in the positive degree, one containing an adjective in the comparative degree, and one containing an adjective in the superlative degree.

What is an adverb? How are adverbs compared? Use each of the three degrees of an adverb in sentences, as you were directed above in the case of adjectives.

Exercises. A. Give the comparison of each of the following adjectives:

gentle happy blue old bashful gracious

B. Give the comparison of each of the following adverbs:
rapidly willingly slowly carefully fearlessly timidly

C. Point out the adjectives and the adverbs in the following sentences. In the case of the adjectives, tell the kind, the degree, and the use of each. In the case of the adverbs, tell the degree and the use.

1. The rugged mountains' scanty cloak was dwarfish shrubs of birch and oak.
2. That old man is poor and lame and blind.
3. I live in a white house with green blinds.

4. His apple is the better of the two.
5. You talk too slowly.
6. He talks even more slowly than his sister does.
7. This is the hottest day we have had.
8. This Saturday is pleasanter than last Saturday was.
9. Some people enjoy warm weather.
10. Few people like extreme weather of any kind.
11. He walks most rapidly.
12. That man drives faster than he should.
13. Your brother is older than my sister.
14. The view from this point is less beautiful than that from the top of the hill.
15. He is the least generous of the three.
16. She is the most thoughtless person I know.
17. The river is very low this summer.
18. The night was still and clear.
19. She finished her work earlier than I did.
20. I am very well pleased with what you have done.

188. Review—Prepositions and Phrases

Review Lessons 18, 52, 53, 54, and 131. What is a preposition? What parts of speech may be used as the objects of prepositions? Illustrate. Write a sentence containing a prepositional phrase. How does an adjectival phrase differ from an adverbial phrase? Illustrate.

Exercises. *A.* Make a list of all the prepositions you can find on a page of your history. Write eight sentences illustrating the correct use of *in*, *into*, *to*, and *at*. Write five sentences containing other prepositions, and underline the object of each.

B. Write five sentences containing adjectival phrases, and five sentences containing adverbial phrases.

189. Review—Clauses and Conjunctions

Review Lessons 19, 56, 57, 58, 139, 143, 144, and 145.

What is a principal clause? a subordinate clause? an adjectival clause? an adverbial clause? a substantive clause? Give an example of each.

What is a coördinating conjunction? Give sentences illustrating three different uses of a coördinating conjunction. What are the three most common coördinating conjunctions? What are correlatives? Name the most common correlatives. Give sentences illustrating the correct use of each.

What is a subordinating conjunction? Give a sentence showing how a subordinating conjunction is used.

What other parts of speech are sometimes used to introduce subordinate clauses? Illustrate.

Exercises. A. Point out the conjunctions in the following. Tell how each is used and whether it is subordinating or coördinating. What part of speech is *whose*? How is it used in the first sentence below? Explain the use of *which* in the last sentence. What part of speech is *which* in this sentence?

A boy whose name is Joe rushed into the living room one day. He said that he could not find his necktie, gloves, or cap. As it was almost school time, his indulgent mother had to search for them. Although Joe is a very bright lad, he is not neat; and since he never puts anything in the same place twice, he never knows where anything is. I wonder whether there are any pupils in this room whose hats and pencils are always disappearing because of the same unfortunate habit which Joe had formed.

B. Point out the clauses in the following sentences. Tell what kind of clause each is, how it is used, and by what part of speech it is introduced:

1. If you wish to learn, you must study hard.
2. We shall not go unless we are invited.
3. The visitor put on his coat and went out.
4. I do not care whether you go or stay.
5. She knows that she is beautiful.
6. That you do not like your work is unfortunate.
7. I know what you mean.
8. The house which stands at the top of the hill is ours.
9. When school was dismissed he went home.
10. All of us listened carefully to what was said.
11. Francis Sawyer is the boy of whom I was speaking.
12. As Ernest looked at the Great Stone face, he grew to resemble it.
13. We travel so that we may become broader minded men and women.
14. Though Paul Revere had to ride at night, he succeeded in carrying his message through every Middlesex village and town.
15. *The Call of the Wild* is a story in which a dog plays an important part.
16. The Colorado Canyon, which is in Arizona, is one of the grandest sights in the world.
17. We know that a knowledge of English is very valuable.
18. I know who you are.

C. Change the phrases into clauses:

1. The people of our city are very hospitable.
2. He was a man of shrewdness.
3. She was a student of very great promise.
4. A boy of strength may become an athlete.
5. I pity birds in cages.

D. Notice the meaning and the punctuation of each of the sentences, and the groups of words written as sentences, in the following exercise. Correct them by changing the punctuation, where necessary, and by rearranging sentences in which the modifiers are misplaced.

1. The game I enjoy playing is football. Because you must think and play fast.
2. The yard is higher than the street surrounded by a stone wall which makes it a fine playground.
3. The apples were sent in an attractive basket which I enjoyed eating.
4. James Brown was ten years old. When his mother sent him to school.
5. A fine view was obtained from the upper story of Niagara Falls.
6. They shall provide the lunch. Whether they want to or not.
7. Chesterton writes interesting detective stories. Which are as interesting to girls as they are to boys.
8. Mr. Smith brought the older people home in his automobile. While the children walked across the fields.
9. I have been waiting for you two hours. So that I have missed the train.
10. The use of oil lamps requires much time and care. While electricity saves time and trouble.
11. The children started for home promptly at nine o'clock. Although they wished to stay longer.
12. They elected John captain of the baseball team. Which was just what we wanted.
13. How I pity the poor man on such a stormy night who has no home!
14. The king became so tyrannical. Some of his nobles conspired against him.
15. Since you are already here. We shall start now.

E. Write five sentences containing adjectival clauses, and five containing adverbial clauses. Write six sentences containing substantive clauses—two, having the clause used as the subject; two, as the object of a verb; two, as the object of a preposition.

F. Write twelve sentences in which the correct use of the following words is illustrated: *like, as, as if, if, whether*. Explain in each case how the word is used, and tell what part of speech it is.

G. Write two sentences illustrating the correct use of correlative conjunctions.

H. Write five sentences containing coördinating conjunctions, and five containing subordinating conjunctions, and analyze each.

190. Review—Who and Whom

What is the case of *who*? When should the nominative case of the relative or the interrogative pronoun be used? What is the case of *whom*? When should this case of the relative or interrogative pronoun be used?

Below are a number of sentences in which you will be asked to choose between *who* and *whom*. First read the following suggestions which will help you in choosing the correct form:

1. *Whom did you get to take us to the station?* The normal order, *You did get whom to take us to the station*, shows that the infinitive phrase, *whom to take us to the station*, is the object of *get* and that *whom* is the subject of the infinitive *to take*. Remember that subjects of infinitives are always in the *accusative* case.

2. *Whom do you wish to invite?* Here the normal order,

You do wish to invite whom, makes it plain that the pronoun *whom* is the object of the infinitive *to invite*, and is in the accusative case.

Exercises. A. Copy the following sentences, choosing the correct forms. Give the reason in each case:

1. (Who, Whom) do you want?
2. (Who, Whom) does she look like?
3. I know (who, whom) you are talking about.
4. (Who, Whom) did you speak to?
5. (Who, Whom) did you invite to your party?
6. I know (who, whom) you spoke to.
7. I saw the boy (who, whom) the machine hurt.
8. Many of us have parents (who, whom) we do not appreciate.
9. The teachers pass only those (who, whom) have done the work acceptably.
10. (Who, Whom) did you ask to help us?
11. I know (who, whom) she is.
12. (Who, Whom) did you say you met down town?
13. There was much debate over (who, whom) should be made captain.
14. (Who, Whom) is this book for?
15. (Who, Whom) did you see at the entertainment?
16. I know (who, whom) you can get to play for you tonight.
17. (Who, Whom) do you mean?
18. I don't know (who, whom) she is.
19. There was some doubt as to (who, whom) should represent the school.
20. (Who, Whom) are you looking at?
21. He is a man (who, whom) we can safely follow.
22. He is a man (who, whom) will lead us safely.
23. I know (who, whom) I like.
24. (Who, Whom) was that?

25. Is she the girl (who, whom) passed us?
26. Is she the girl (who, whom) we passed?
27. I do not know (who, whom) to ask.
28. We do not know (who, whom) was to blame.
29. (Who, Whom) shall we go to for help?
30. (Who, Whom) do you think I am?
31. I asked them (who, whom) they meant.
32. Did your father know (who, whom) found the money?
33. I asked him (who, whom) he was.
34. (Who, Whom) did you say was here last night?
35. Grandfather told me (who, whom) this was for.
36. I wonder (who, whom) he meant.
37. He is the man (who, whom) I saw yesterday.
38. Write to (whoever, whomever) you know best.
39. Be courteous to (whomever, whoever) comes.
40. Reward (whomever, whoever) does the best work.

B. Write a sentence in which *who* is a predicate word; one in which *whom* is the object of a verb; one in which *whom* is the object of a preposition; and one in which *who* is the subject of a subordinate clause.

C. Write a sentence in which *who* or *whom* is used as an interrogative pronoun; as a relative pronoun.

191. Review—Analysis of Sentences

Review Lessons 55, 56, 57, and 125.

What is a simple sentence? a compound sentence? a complex sentence? Give an example of each kind of sentence. What is a compound subject? a compound predicate? Illustrate.

Exercises. A. Analyze the following sentences. Parse nouns, personal pronouns, and verbs. Tell the part of speech of each of the other words in the sentence, and explain its use.

1. The town crier has rung his bell at a distant corner, and little Annie stands listening.
2. He is telling the people that an elephant, a lion, a royal tiger, and other strange beasts have come to town and will receive all visitors.
3. Little Annie's blue silk frock is fluttering in the breeze as she bounds across the street.
4. Little Annie's feet move in unison with the organ grinder's tune.
5. Here we see the same wolf that devoured little Red Riding Hood and her grandmother.
6. Here sits a great white bear; he is thinking of his voyages on an iceberg.
7. Again the buzzing talk of many tongues is drowned by the town crier's clear, loud voice.
8. The crier is shouting that a little girl in a blue silk frock with brown curling hair and hazel eyes has strayed from home and has been missed by her afflicted mother.
9. Stop, town crier, for little Annie is not lost.
10. She is with her grandfather, who has forgotten to tell her mother of their ramble.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE—Adapted

B. Write five simple sentences, two of which contain compound subjects, and two of which contain compound predicates. Write and analyze five compound sentences and five complex sentences.

192. Review—Capitalization and Punctuation

As you read the following selection, note the errors in capitalization and punctuation, explaining to yourself just how these errors may be corrected. Then rewrite this selection, supplying the capital letters and the proper

marks of punctuation. Be sure you are able to give the reason for each correction you have made.

she answered it annoys me not to have a jewel not a single one to put on i shall look like distress i would almost rather not go to this party

her husband answered you will wear some natural flowers they are very stylish this season of the year for two dollars you will have two or three magnificent roses

but she was not convinced

no there is nothing more humiliating than to look poor among a lot of rich women

but he cried what a goose you are go find your friend mrs forester and ask her to lend you some jewelry you know her well enough to do that

she gave a cry of joy thats true i had not thought of it

the next day she went to her friends home and told her about her distress

mrs forester went to her mirrored wardrobe took out a large casket brought it opened it and said to mrs loisel choose dear.

From *The Necklace*, by GUY DE MAUPASSANT

Exercises. A. Write and punctuate nine sentences, each of which contains one of the following:

1. an appositive
2. a broken quotation
3. words, or groups of words in a series
4. a long subordinate clause, standing first in the sentence
5. a long participial phrase
6. two principal clauses
7. the possessive form of a noun
8. an interjection
9. a contraction

What rules of punctuation are applied in these nine sentences? Classify each of these sentences according to use; according to form.

B. Write correctly a superscription, a heading, a salutation, and a complimentary close for a business letter. Write a heading, a salutation, and a complimentary close for a friendly letter.

193. Review—Debating

Review Lessons 111 and 123.

What are the rules for debating? Select one of the following topics and prepare a debate on it according to the rules.

1. *Resolved*, That every pupil should prepare himself for some vocation while in high school.

2. *Resolved*, That the honor system should prevail in all school examinations.

3. *Resolved*, That two sessions of school are better than one.

4. *Resolved*, That women should be compelled by law to remove their hats in church.

5. *Resolved*, That women should be compelled by law to serve on juries.

194. Review—Word Forms

Select the correct word or expression in the following sentences, and in each case give a reason for your choice:

1. The pencil is (lying, laying) on the floor.
2. The children were (sitting, setting) on the door steps.
3. (Let, Leave) the shopkeeper read his morning paper.

4. I (want off, want to get off) at Baltimore Avenue.
5. He can not write (so, as) (good, well) as Donald or (I, me).
6. He (surely, sure) (will, shall) miss the train.
7. He (surely, sure) sells more papers than Robert and (I, me).
8. I feel (some, somewhat) tired tonight.
9. Our (desert, dessert) was chocolate pie.
10. Figs are carried by camels across the (desert, dessert).
11. Everybody likes (current, currant) jam.
12. Harry Hartley drew his sketches very quickly on the (canvas, canvass).
13. (Devise, Device) some scheme for (me, my) (canvasing, canvassing) the neighborhood.
14. (Can, May) I build a lemonade stand (there, their)?
15. You will have to (teach, learn) your lesson yourself. I can not (teach, learn) it (for, four) you.
16. I (taught, learned) Marie and (he, him) to drive the automobile.
17. The cake is (rising, raising) too quickly.
18. The Missouri River did not (rise, raise) alarmingly this summer.
19. (Who's, Whose) to blame for (his, him) falling?
20. (Who's, Whose) bicycle is this?
21. Do you know (who, whom) I can ask to deliver this ice cream for father and (I, me)?
22. Has any one (saw, seen) the prize?
23. My red balloon has (burst, bursted).
24. I shall wait (on, for) you at noon.
25. He acts (like, as if) he were indignant.
26. Evelyn's hat is different (than, from) mine.
27. You (will, shall) not know literature (without, unless) you read much at home.
28. The dog hurt (its, it's) foot.

29. The (to, two, too) workmen had (to, too, two) much (to, too) do.
30. I do not know (if, whether) (your, you're) mistaken.
31. (Those, Them) golf clubs in the corner (is, are) (theirs, there's).
32. We often (refer, refer back) to the checking list.
33. I do not know (who, whom) you mean.
34. I was talking about (John, John's) losing five dollars.
35. Yes, this is (she, her).
36. (Shall, Will) you go to town with me?
37. I (shall, will) force myself to tell the truth.
38. I knew it to be (he, him) by his whistle.
39. The magazine which was (give, given) to me was (laying, lying) on the porch when Fido (run, ran) past.
40. Charlotte has not (near, nearly) finished her dusting.
41. She has (most, almost) finished her test.
42. Divide the oranges (among, between) the three boys.
43. That is a secret between (we, us) girls.
44. We have not said (nothing, anything) about (you, your) taking part in the hurdle races.
45. The packages (was, were) (laid, lain) (there, their) by Ruth and (I, me).
46. Neither of (those, them) pitchers (was, were) (broke, broken) by (we, us) boys.
47. He (doesn't, don't) (know, no) (nothing, anything) about your violin.
48. I have (fell, fallen) from a tree only once.
49. (Willis, Willis he) has (only tormented, tormented only) his little cousin.
50. Allen hasn't (tore, torn) (anything, nothing), (either, neither) for a long time.
51. (Was, Were) you (at, to) the automobile races with your father and (those, them) boys?
52. I am older than (she, her).

53. I do not like Helen (so, as) well as (she, her).
54. There is nothing (further, farther) to be said.
55. We are acting (like, as) cultured people are supposed to act.
56. You must not go (unless, without) some one is with you.
57. They (threw, throwed) the ball (in, into) the pond.
58. Would that summer (was, were) here.
59. Work (rapid, rapidly).
60. There (are, is) not many airplanes in the sky.
61. Neither he (or, nor) his cousin tells the truth.
62. The teacher told every one to open (his, their) book.
63. He (did, done) his work (good, well).

195. Test A. Completion Test

Directions. Copy each statement below, filling the blank with the correct word or words.

1. A noun or pronoun used as indirect object of a verb is in the case.
2. A predicate word names or describes the
3. A completes the predicate and names the subject.
4. A group of words having a subject and a predicate is called a
5. A pronoun agrees with its.....in person, number, and gender.
6. Use the degree when comparing two objects.
7. An adjective modifies a
8. A noun or pronoun used as the direct object of a verb is in the case.
9. A word expressing strong or sudden feeling is called an
10. An modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb.

196. Test B. True-False Test

Directions. Write the numbers 1 to 20 in a column on your paper. Plan for two other columns headed *True* and *False* as you did for Test C, page 219. Read carefully each of the following statements. If it is a true statement, make a (x) in the *True* column opposite the proper number. If the statement is false, place a (x) in the *False* column opposite the proper number.

1. All proper nouns begin with capital letters.
2. Words in a series must be separated by commas.
3. A declarative sentence should close with a question mark.
4. More than one negative may be used in a sentence.
5. In the sentence *Out of the woods came the bear*, the subject is *woods*.
6. When the pronoun *you* is used as the subject of a sentence, it requires a plural verb.
7. A name used in direct address should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas.
8. The expression *all right* is always written as two words.
9. A small letter is used to begin the salutation and the complimentary close of a letter.
10. In the sentence *These kinds of apples grow in Oregon*, the subject is *apples*.
11. A group of sentences related to one idea is called a paragraph.
12. The singular and plural forms for the word *sheep* are different.
13. A group of words expressing a complete thought is called a phrase.
14. The plural of *box* is formed by adding *s*.
15. The exact words of a speaker are inclosed by quotation marks.

16. *Yes* or *no* used at the beginning of a sentence should be followed by a question mark.
17. The pronoun *me* may be used as the subject of a sentence.
18. The word *iron* is always a noun.
19. Capital letters are always used in writing the words *I* and *O*.
20. The plural of *roof* is formed by adding *s*.

197. Test C. Common and Proper Nouns

PART I

Directions. Write on your paper a proper noun suggested to you by each of the following common nouns. Number your words to correspond with those below.

- | | | | |
|----------|-----------|--------------|-------------|
| 1. ocean | 4. city | 7. newspaper | 10. teacher |
| 2. river | 5. street | 8. month | 11. author |
| 3. dog | 6. girl | 9. day | 12. island |

PART II

Directions. Write on your paper a common noun suggested to you by each of the following proper nouns. Number your words to correspond with those below.

- | | | |
|---------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| 1. California | 4. Mrs. Howe | 7. Evening Post |
| 2. Canada | 5. Arthur | 8. Theodore Roosevelt |
| 3. France | 6. Yale | 9. Home, Sweet Home |

198. Test D. Verbs

PART I. IRREGULAR VERBS

Directions. Each blank in the sentences below is to be filled with some form of one of the following verbs. Read each sentence through carefully; then copy it neatly,

filling the blank with the correct form. Be sure that each sentence makes good sense.

swim	sing	begin
run	ring	drink

1. As soon as the puppy saw us, he to bark.
2. The thirsty boy had six glasses of water.
3. Our canary hasn't yet.
4. While we were drinking cocoa, my father had his coffee.
5. The bell had before I could get into the building.
6. Jack like a deer when he saw the bear.
7. I've a mile in eight minutes.
8. My baby sister has to walk.
9. Have you ever a mile on a cinder track?
10. Joe has a hundred yards under water and won the ribbon.

PART II. VERB AGREEMENT

Directions. Read each sentence, supplying the correct verb form; then write the sentence. Supply only one word in each space. Be sure that each sentence makes good sense.

1. I always like to go to school, but Mary says that shen't.
2. I saw that there two tables, a dresser, and two chairs in the room.
3. We went in and welcomed heartily.
4. One of the suits he wore made of blue serge.
5. Youn't running because you are frightened, of course.
6. Why Mary and Bertha come here any more?

7. my sister and brother found in the woods?
8. The value of those exercises not very great.
9. You say you spent two hours on this lesson and unable to master it.
10. Whyn't you going tonight?

199. Test E. Kinds of Clauses

Directions. Copy the following sentences, underlining all the adjectival clauses and all the adverbial clauses. At the right of the sentences on your paper make two columns, one headed *Adj.* and one *Adv.* After each sentence containing an adjectival clause, place a (×) in the column marked *Adj.* After each sentence containing an adverbial clause, place a (×) in the column marked *Adv.*

1. The man who sent us the maple sugar lives in Vermont.
2. We shall go to the game after we have had lunch.
3. Some people prefer to live where the winters are milder.
4. The fish that we caught yesterday were delicious.
5. We went home when we were ready.
6. We make extra work for you, which might be avoided.
7. The horse that won the race is very beautiful.
8. She is the girl who took part in the play.
9. We must buy a fishing tackle before we go on our vacation.
10. As the automobile turned the curve, we saw two deer in the road.
11. I have read the book which you lent me.
12. Where there is a will there is a way.
13. Those that are strong should help those that are weak.
14. The man who joined the army has deserted.
15. You should read such books as will be helpful.

200. Test F. Phrases and Clauses

Directions. Some of the following sentences contain phrases; others contain clauses. Copy the diagram at the left of this page. Read each sentence carefully. If it contains a phrase, place a (×) in the column marked *P* opposite the number of that sentence. If the sentence contains a clause, place a (×) in the column marked *C*.

	<i>P.</i>	<i>C.</i>	
1.			1. Did you ever see the Old Man of the Mountains?
2.			2. Were you ever in a boat?
3.			3. She appeared as if she heard someone.
4.			4. He is a man of wealth.
5.			5. She came with her mother.
6.			6. We saw your brother when you were in California.
7.			7. Tom put up the tent while I built a fire.
8.			8. A bucket of water was drawn from the well.
9.			9. When we finished our lessons we went for a walk.
10.			10. The man walked with haste.
11.			11. We had a picnic down by the brook.
12.			12. This was the first game of the season.
13.			13. Write me when you get home.
14.			14. The soldiers fought with machine guns.
15.			15. From all directions came the visitors.

CHECKING LIST

(Numbers in parentheses refer to lessons)

ORAL COMPOSITION RULES

1. Stand erect. (22)
2. When you are talking to people, look at them. (22)
3. Enunciate clearly. (22)
4. Pronounce every word correctly. (22)
5. Speak loud enough to be heard. (22)
6. Speak without halting. (22)
7. Do not use too many *and's* and *well's*. (22)
8. Do not talk too fast. (22)
9. Select a subject interesting to your audience. (41)
10. Outline your talk. (41)
11. Have an interesting but brief beginning. (41)
12. Arrange your ideas in an orderly way. (41)
13. Stick to the point. (41)
14. Make your ending brief. (41)
15. Practice telling your story to yourself before class. (41)

RULES FOR WRITTEN FORM

1. All words should be spelled correctly. (Book I)
2. Writing should be plain and neat. (Book I)
3. Write your name near the top of the page on the right-hand side. (Book I)
4. Write the date on the same line on the left-hand side. (Book I)
5. Leave a margin of an inch and a half at the left of the page. (Book I)
6. Begin the first word of a paragraph about one inch from the left-hand margin. (Book I)
7. Do not use too many *and's*. (Book I)

CHECKING LIST

8. In correcting pencil errors erase neatly. In correcting errors in ink, draw a line through the incorrect word and write the correct word neatly above it. (Book I)
9. All written work should be checked. (Book I)

DIRECTIONS FOR LEARNING RULES AND DEFINITIONS

1. First read the rule or definition to get its meaning. (7)
2. Read and reread the rule or definition until you can repeat it without the book. (7)
3. Write the rule or definition several times. (7)
4. Try to repeat it later in the day. (7)
5. Each day attempt to repeat any rule or definition which has given you trouble. A rule or definition is not well learned until it can be repeated correctly, rapidly, and with understanding. (7)

PUNCTUATION RULES

1. Place a period at the end of a declarative sentence. (8)
2. Place a period at the end of every abbreviation. (Book I)
3. Place a question mark at the end of an interrogative sentence. (8)
4. Place an exclamation mark at the end of an exclamatory sentence. (9)
5. In contractions the apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of a letter or letters. (48)
6. When the conjunction is expressed, the clauses of a compound sentence are usually separated by a comma. When the conjunction is not expressed, or when the clauses contain commas, separate the clauses by a semicolon. (56)
7. Place a comma after a long subordinate clause when the subordinate clause precedes the principal clause. (57)
8. Place quotation marks before and after a direct quotation. (61)
9. Separate a direct quotation from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas, unless a question mark or an exclamation mark is needed. (61)
10. If *yes* or *no* is used as part of an answer to a question, it is separated from the rest of the answer by a comma. (62)

11. Words or groups of words in a series are separated by commas. (62)
12. Set off words of direct address from the rest of the sentence by commas. (62)
13. An appositive is usually set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas. (85)
14. Usually set off parenthetical expressions by commas. (159)
15. Separate long participial phrases from the rest of the sentence by commas. (170)

RULES FOR CAPITALIZATION

1. Begin every sentence with a capital letter. (7)
2. Begin with capital letters all proper nouns, including names of the days of the week, names of the months, titles of books, names of all races and languages, and names applied to the Deity. (24)
3. Capitalize the pronoun *I*. (31)
4. Begin a proper adjective with a capital letter. (42)
5. The first word of a direct quotation is usually begun with a capital letter. (61)
6. The first word of each line of poetry begins with a capital letter. (Book I)

RULES OF GRAMMAR

1. Most nouns form their plural by adding *s* to the singular. Nouns ending in an *s* sound (*s*, *z*, *x*, *ch*, *sh*) form their plural by adding *es* to the singular. (25)
2. Nouns ending in *y*, not preceded by a vowel (*a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*), change *y* to *i* and add *es* to the singular to form the plural. (26)
3. Most nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* or *fe* to *ves* to form the plural. (26)
4. To form the plural of letters and figures add *'s*; as, *8's*, *4's*, *n's*, *t's*. (26)
5. Singular nouns form the possessive by adding *'s*. (27)
6. Plural nouns ending in *s* form the possessive by adding the apostrophe only. (27)

7. Plural nouns not ending in *s* form the possessive by adding 's. (27)
8. The first personal pronoun stands last in a series. (31)
9. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender. (33)
10. A possessive adjective agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender. (44)
11. Do not use a double negative. (49)
12. In the present tense, the third person singular number of the verb always ends in *s*. (67)
13. To express future time use *shall* with the first person and *will* with the second and third. (68)
14. To express determination use *will* with the first person and *shall* with the second and third. (68)
15. A verb must agree with its subject in number and person. (69)
16. *Doesn't* is a third person singular form and must be used with subjects that are in the third person, singular number. (74)
17. A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a sentence is in the nominative case. (81)
18. A noun or a pronoun used as the direct object of a verb is in the accusative case. (81)
19. A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a preposition is in the accusative case. (81)
20. A noun or a pronoun used as the indirect object of a verb is in the dative case. (81)
21. A noun or a pronoun used as a predicate word is in the nominative case. (81)
22. Always use the singular demonstrative adjectives (*this* and *that*) with singular nouns. (83)
23. Always use the plural demonstrative adjectives (*these* and *those*) with plural nouns. (83)
24. *Them* should never be used as a demonstrative. (83)
25. The comparative degree of an adjective is commonly formed by adding *er* to, or by using *more* or *less* with, the positive degree. (90)

26. The superlative degree of an adjective is commonly formed by adding *est* to, or by using *most* or *least* with, the positive degree. (90)
27. In comparing two objects always use the comparative degree. (90)
28. In comparing more than two objects, use the superlative degree. (90)
29. The comparative degree of an adverb is formed by adding *er* to, or by using *more* or *less* with, the positive degree. (91)
30. The superlative degree of an adverb is formed by adding *est* to, or by using *most* or *least* with, the positive degree. (91)
31. *Between* is generally used in speaking of two persons, places, or things, and *among* in speaking of more than two. (131)
32. When the verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, the verb in the subordinate clause should be in a past tense also. (140)
33. A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person and number. (142)
34. Use *who*, *whom*, or *that* when the antecedent is a person; use *which* or *that* when the antecedent is a place or a thing. (142)
35. Do not use *like* as a conjunction; use *as* or *as if* instead. (144)
36. A participle introducing a sentence should always modify the subject of the sentence. (170)
37. Use the possessive adjective with the gerund. (173)
38. Use the genitive case of a noun with the gerund. (173)

DEFINITIONS

1. A sentence is a group of words which expresses a complete thought. (7)
2. A declarative sentence is a sentence that makes a statement or gives a command. (8)
3. An interrogative sentence is a sentence that asks a question. (8)
4. An exclamatory sentence is a sentence that expresses strong feeling. (9)

5. A non-exclamatory sentence is any sentence that does not express strong feeling. (9)
6. The subject of a sentence is that part of it which tells what is spoken of. (11)
7. The predicate of a sentence is that part of it which tells what is said about the subject. (11)
8. A noun is a word used as a name of a person, place, or thing. (13)
9. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. (14)
10. A verb is a word that asserts action or being. (15)
11. An adjective is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun. (16)
12. An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. (17)
13. A preposition is a word that shows the relation between a noun or a pronoun and some other word or words in the sentence. (18)
14. A conjunction is a word that is used to connect words or groups of words. (19)
15. An interjection is a word that expresses strong or sudden feeling. (20)
16. A common noun is a word used as the name of any one of a class of persons, places, or things. (24)
17. A proper noun is a word used as the name of a particular person, place, or thing. (24)
18. The singular number of a word denotes *one* person, place, or thing. The plural number of a word denotes *more than one* person, place, or thing. (25)
19. Pronouns which denote the speaker are said to be in the *first person*. (31)
20. Pronouns which denote the person spoken to are said to be in the *second person*. (31)
21. Pronouns which denote the person, place, or thing spoken of are said to be in the *third person*. (31)
22. Nouns and pronouns which denote male beings are of the masculine gender. (32)

23. Nouns and pronouns which denote female beings are of the feminine gender. (32)
24. Nouns and pronouns which denote things that are neither male nor female are of the neuter gender. (32)
25. A paragraph is a group of sentences related to one idea or topic. (50)
26. A phrase is a group of related words, without a subject and a predicate, that does the work of a single part of speech. (53)
27. An adjectival phrase is a phrase that modifies a noun or a pronoun. (53)
28. An adverbial phrase is a phrase that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. (53)
29. A simple sentence is a sentence that contains but one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound. (55)
30. A clause is a group of words which contains a subject and a predicate, and is used as a part of a sentence. (56)
31. A principal clause is a clause which expresses a complete thought. (56)
32. A compound sentence is a sentence containing two or more principal clauses. (56)
33. A subordinate clause is a clause which does not express a complete thought. (57)
34. A complex sentence is a sentence that consists of one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses. (57)
35. An adjectival clause is a subordinate clause used like an adjective. (58)
36. An adverbial clause is a subordinate clause used like an adverb. (58)
37. A modifier is a word, a phrase, or a clause used to limit or qualify the meaning of some other word or group of words. (59)
38. The present tense of a verb is that form of the verb which denotes present time. (67)
39. The past tense of a verb is that form of the verb which denotes past time. (67)

40. The future tense of a verb is expressed by a verb phrase which denotes future time. (67)
41. The direct object of a verb is the word that denotes the receiver or the object of the action expressed by the verb. (78)
42. A transitive verb is one that expresses action carried over to a person or thing. (78)
43. The indirect object of a verb is the noun or the pronoun that indicates *to whom*, *to what*, *for whom*, or *for what*, something is done. (78)
44. An intransitive verb is one that does not require an object. (79)
45. Demonstratives are words used to point out persons, places, or things for special attention. (83)
46. An appositive is a noun or a pronoun used to explain a noun or a pronoun that denotes the same person, place or thing. (85)
47. The positive degree of an adjective is its simplest form, and expresses a quality without the idea of comparison. (90)
48. The comparative degree of an adjective denotes a greater or less degree of a quality. (90)
49. The superlative degree of an adjective denotes the greatest or the least degree of a quality. (90)
50. The present perfect tense denotes that an action has been completed or perfected at or before the present time. (132)
51. The past perfect tense denotes that an action was completed or perfected at or before some definite time in the past. (132)
52. The future perfect tense denotes that an action will be completed or perfected at or before a definite time in the future. (132)
53. A substantive clause (noun clause) is a subordinate clause used like a noun. (139)
54. An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun that is used in asking questions. (141)

55. A relative pronoun is a pronoun used to join to its antecedent a subordinate clause of which it is a part. (142)
56. A coördinating conjunction is a conjunction used to connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank. (143)
57. A subordinating conjunction is a conjunction that connects a subordinate clause with a principal clause. (143)
58. A participle is a verb form which partakes of the nature of an adjective. (170)
59. The gerund is a verb form ending in *ing* that partakes of the nature of a noun. (172)
60. An infinitive is a verb form that partakes of the nature of a noun, of an adjective, and of an adverb. (172)
61. Active voice is that form of the transitive verb which indicates that the subject is the doer of an act. (175)
62. Passive voice is that form of the transitive verb which represents the subject as the receiver of an action. (175)
63. The indicative mood is that form of the verb which states a fact or asks a question. (177)
64. The subjunctive mood is that form of the verb which expresses a wish, an extreme doubt, or a contrary-to-fact condition. (177)
65. The imperative mood is that form of the verb which expresses a command or a request. (177)



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